The Nation.

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The Week.

The conventions of the dominant party in several of the largest commonwealths between the Atlantic Coast and the Missouri River have proved significant in one important particular. They show that Republicans are keeping an open mind as to the Philippines, and that a Republican Administration at Washington may count upon the support of the party in any well-directed efforts toward securing the ultimate relinquishment of American control of the islands. Massachusetts and New Jersey are typical Eastern States; Ohio and Iowa are equally representative of the Middle West. Anybody who sought to learn what Republican sentiment in these two sections of the country has been at any time in the past thirty years would consult the platforms adopted by the party in the Conventions of those States at that time. The rule holds good now. The first in point of time this year were the Ohio Republicans, who assembled some weeks before President McKinley was shot. Naturally, they endorsed in the warmest terms "his wise, patriotic, and brilliant Administration," and they "pointed with pride" to the suppression of insurrection in the Philippines, the establishment of "civil government contemplating the largest practicable degree of home rule," and the introduction of the American educational system. As this convention was held during the lifetime of the President who had declared that the flag must never be hauled down where it had once been raised, the moderation of the deliverance on the subject of the Philippines is very noticeable.

The Iowa Republicans went a step further. They followed a general endorsement of the McKinley Administration with a declaration that "we would emphasize our endorsement of its action in more firmly establishing our monetary system upon a gold basis, and in providing for civil government in Porto Rico and the Philippines, and for the relinquishment of our authority in Cuba," and proceeded as follows:

> "The policy of this Government toward these islands has followed inevitably upon our expulsion of the authority of Spain. It has been dictated by conditions entirely consistent with the spirit and with the provisions of the Constitution, and the paramount consideration has been to secure the lasting welfare of these people, whose fortunes and destinies have become in a large degree dependent upon us. The fact that our authority there is the result of a war waged, not for our aggrandizement, but in the name of humanity, must for ever govern and inspire our relations to them."

The New Jersey Republicans adopted a platform which is entirely silent on the subject of the Philippines, and the Massachusetts platform is equally mute. The party in each State is therefore now in a position to accept and endorse any policy that may look toward an end of the anomalous conditions under which a republic is governing remote possessions. The Massachusetts Republicans, indeed, employed language which would be far more consistent with our abandonment of the Philippines than with our retention of the islands, for they declared that the Republican party "pledges itself anew to the maintenance of its exalted ideals and its patriotic principles"—ideals and principles which, as Senator Hoar has repeatedly demonstrated, are utterly inconsistent with the rule of subject peoples.

Appeals are now made to President Roosevelt, as they had been to President McKinley, to do something in reference to the war in South Africa. Some people advocate one thing, and some another. The mildest suggestion made is that he shall in some way express an opinion about Gen. Kitchener's methods of carrying on the war. According to this conception, the American people would say to the British people, through President Roosevelt: "We think that your concentration camps are barbarous and your banishment of prisoners of war needless cruelty. Why do you not exchange your prisoners for those taken by the other side?" etc. If such complaints were made by us, the British authorities might reply that without concentration camps the Boer women and children would be worse off than they are now, and that many of them would inevitably starve to death. Then we should reply that the British practice of burning houses is wicked, since it leaves the occupants destitute and shelterless, and thus makes concentration camps necessary. To this the British casuists would, perhaps, rejoin that they had read of similar doings by the American forces in the Philippines, even the burning of whole villages; and as for banishment, what about Guam? Possibly they might touch upon the Monroe Doctrine, and ask how we should regard an attempt on the part of a European Power to give advice in reference to a war actually in progress on the American continent, and in which we were ourselves engaged. There is no end to the embarrassments in which we should find ourselves entangled if we should undertake to meddle, even in a friendly way, in the war in South Africa.

If there was ever any question as to President Roosevelt's attitude towards the fight against Addicks in Delaware, it has been answered by his appointing William H. Heald Postmaster of Wilmington. He has thus served notice upon the State that no Federal patronage shall be at the disposal of Addicks or of his political pirates. Mr. Heald takes the place of an assiduous Addicks man, named Browne, whose accounts were recently found to be incorrect to the extent of $1,205. This sum was promptly made good, and it was confidently believed that the offence would be overlooked and Mr. Browne allowed to remain in office. As soon as the President heard of the affair, he insisted upon a change, and, at the suggestion of Representative Bell, selected Mr. Heald. As the latter is a regular Republican of the most pronounced type, and one who worked for weeks last winter to prevent the success of Addicks during the last session of the Legislature, that intriguer can hardly regard his choice as anything else than a sign that the present Administration will be opposed to him, tooth and nail.

Further news from Washington confirms the report (which, however, needed no confirmation) that Senator Frye is still interested in the effort to improve our merchant marine. The dispatches speak touchingly of the bill as the Senator's "favorite topic." Mr. Frye admits that last year's bill was drastic, "so drastic, in fact, that it frightened many people"; but he contends that the disease is one that requires drastic remedies. "Never was our merchant marine in so bad a condition as last year," exclaims the Senator, in defiance of the recent Government figures showing unparalleled growth in our ship-building industry, both on the Great Lakes and on the seaboard. Last year's bill, Mr. Frye thinks, was so good as to admit of little improvement. Yet, in order to pacify some who were frightened by its drastic character, he is willing to modify it so as to meet the views of those who approve the principle of ship-subsidies. "These changes will not improve the bill, but will improve its chances of adoption," he plaintively continues. He further points out that last year's session was so short that the measure was "filibustered to death." In the approaching long session such a performance will be impossible, and there is therefore hope among the subsidy men that the shameless raid on the Treasury may this time succeed.

Mr. Frye also poses as a student of international commerce. England, he says, is greatly alarmed by the efforts of Germany to gain control of the ocean, and by her gradual acquirement of widely

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extended port facilities. We must keep in the race with England and Germany, or we shall be left hopelessly behind. Moreover, says Mr. Frye, there are undoubtedly special opportunities for our manufacturers to trade with the East, owing to the friendly attitude of China and Japan. Unless Americans are specially paid to enter into trade with those countries, there is danger that they may let the opportunity slip. Hence an increasing need for a subsidy bill. Apropos of Germany's subsidy system, what would Mr. Frye say to the fact that the Hamburg-American Line was recently offered a German subsidy, but declined it because of the onerous conditions as to service, stopping-places, etc., attaching to the gift, and because it was already doing a profitable business which could submit to no disturbance? The fact is, that the developments of the past year have more clearly than ever demonstrated the dangerous character of shipping subsidies in those countries where the shipping industry is unprofitable, and their uselessness in countries where the reverse is true. In the United States we now have a vigorous and rapidly growing ship-building industry which is a source of profit to its proprietors. There could be no more unblushing effrontery than the demand that the Government pay a class of men for conducting an already lucrative business.

A curious situation in the sugar industry has been revealed by the argument concerning the countervailing duty on Russian sugar just heard before the United States Circuit Court at Baltimore. It will be recalled that Robert E. Downs, a Baltimore importer, was one of the first to pay the duty under protest, and that he appealed to the Board of General Appraisers in New York, which sustained the Treasury Department in imposing it. The decisive point was to settle whether the Russian Government was in any way affording a bounty to its domestic producers. This question was so difficult as to divide the Board of Appraisers, the sustaining verdict being adopted by a vote of two to one, while the protestant member of the Board, who opposed the duty, was probably the best informed and most competent of the three. The case was transferred to the United States Circuit Court, and the first day's hearing developed the fact that the Sugar Trust, which had in the first instance urged the Treasury to impose the countervailing duty, had now gone over to the other side. It had, in fact, joined Mr. Downs and the National Association of Manufacturers, by which he is supported, in opposing the duty, and was seeking for points to show that the Treasury's position is incorrect.

The explanation of this curious reversal of the Trust's position is found in the news that a fresh conflict with the beet-sugar interests is now opening. According to Mr. Post, the President of the National Sugar Refining Company, the recent cut in the price of granulated sugar to 3½ cents is due to the fact that "the making of large contracts by beet-sugar interests made it impossible for refiners of the West, South, and East, who had been supplying the bulk of the refined sugar in the Missouri Valley, to market their stocks there." Mr. Post points out that this cut made by the Sugar Trust is intended to open the competition between the beet-sugar refiners and the Trust, and he argued that with free raw sugar from Cuba the price of 3½ cents would become permanent, and imply an annual saving of $1.50 or $2 to each inhabitant of the United States. The total duties collected from sugar now amount to about $50,000,000 per annum, and mean an aggregate increase in the cost to consumers of the year's sugar supply amounting to not less than $35,000,000. This $35,000,000 is practically equivalent to a bounty to sugar-planters in Louisiana, Hawaii, and Porto Rico and to domestic beet-growers. Of course, with lower duties on Russian sugar, the stress of competition will fall most heavily on the weaker producers, the beet-growers. For the moment, Judge Morris's decision upholding Collector Stone will serve as protection to the beet-sugar growers, and stimulate competition between them and the Sugar Trust. But Congress should take measures to regain control of the trade with Russia by repealing the countervailing duty.

Dispatches from Washington touching the report of the Industrial Commission indicate that there is a difference of opinion among the members as to the method of dealing with the Trust problem. It is said that one section of the Commission favors stricter anti-Trust legislation by the States and by Congress, without altering their respective jurisdictions; that another section proposes that the exclusive jurisdiction over interstate commerce now exercised by Congress shall be delegated to the States, so as to allow them to regulate the manufacturing and trading corporations engaged in such commerce; while a third section favors the assumption by the national Government of an exclusive control of all such corporations and their regulation by act of Congress. Of the three methods of dealing with the problem, the last is the only one worthy of attention. It has been proved by experience that the existing laws applicable to the subject are essentially nugatory and worthless. How they can be made more effective on the same plan it is difficult to see. To delegate to the States the jurisdiction of interstate commerce now belonging to Congress would simply aggravate the existing incompetency of both Federal and State Governments to deal with the question. The first thing to secure is uniformity of action, so that the States shall not play against each other in their eagerness to secure the organization tax from corporations. What shall be done after the question of jurisdiction is settled is an after-consideration; but if the people have learned anything during the past twenty years, it is that the dispersion of power between State and Federal Government is equivalent to the annihilation of power in both.

It is a gross perversion of the facts when Mr. Shepard maintains that the Republican organization has not changed in its attitude toward the New York city election since 1897. In that year Mr. Low charged the State machine in the Republican party with having thrown itself into the struggle here, "in order that the result of the primaries might work out the will of the State rather than the will of the city"; that the interests of the city and the interests of the Republican organization were widely different; that that organization wanted the spoils, and wanted the spoils "primarily to build up the machine." Mr. Shepard quotes all this, and asks whether it is the Republican party which has changed, or Seth Low? It seems incomprehensible that he should not see that Mr. Low has not changed, that the anti-Tammany candidate is running this year upon the same non-partisan platform as in 1897, but that the Republican organization has changed its position absolutely, as it now supports the man and the cause that it opposed four years ago. There has been as absolute a change upon the part of another factor in each contest—Mr. Shepard himself, who in 1897 denounced as the sum of all villanies the very Tammany from which he now accepts a nomination.

Two things are clearly to be inferred from the correspondence now published regarding Cecil Rhodes's contribution to the Liberal campaign fund in 1891. One is that he was always ready to put money into politics where it would do the most good—for Rhodes; and the other is that the *Spectator* went too far (as it, in fact, admits with apologies) in asserting that the Liberal leaders knew of the contribution and of the conditions with which it was coupled. Rhodes admits that he has no evidence of the privity of either Sir William Harcourt or of Campbell-Bannerman; and as for Gladstone, the sufficient proof that he knew nothing about the bargain is the fact that it was his subsequent speech which alarmed Rhodes about the Liberal policy as regards Egypt. Mr. Schnadhorst, the Liberal "organizer of victory," is dead; but there is no evidence that he, or any other man, ever

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had the temerity to approach Mr. Gladstone with a corrupt proposal. When the thrifty Rhodes gave Parnell £1,000 for Home Rule, he asked the Irish leader if Rhodes's wishes about the bill might not be "put to Mr. Gladstone." "No," answered Parnell, "I do not think it would be wise for me to put the point to Mr. Gladstone!"

That the stars in their courses have hitherto favored General Buller there can be no doubt. Where others, like the gallant Gatacre, were relieved after one defeat and allowed to sink into the obscurity of disgrace, Gen. Buller was permitted to persevere, was given a splendid reception and a fine command on his home-coming. Despite certain disparaging newspaper statements, his social influence lately secured for him the command of one of the new army corps, in the face of the War Office's assurances that only approved field commanders should have these places. Like some of our own war heroes, Sir Redvers has been his own undoing. From his confession, it seems that, as alleged in the press, he advised Gen. Sir George White to surrender Ladysmith, and with it the plucky British army which had opposed the Boers so long. "What of it?" he says; "had Gen. White done so, the responsibility would have been upon my shoulders." Yet this was the man who was likened to our own stubborn Grant in his unyielding hammering away at the enemy before him. As it is, Buller has done Gen. White a great service, and placed him upon a higher pinnacle of fame than that he has occupied hitherto, by showing that he did what his superior doubted his ability to do. It is no wonder that press and public are raging. Gen. Buller has revealed the fact that the War Office is still open to those sinister social influences which are so largely responsible for its inefficiency, and that there is no genuine desire within it for a change. It is hardly possible now that it can continue to shield and advance Buller. His own folly has rendered this impossible. Meanwhile, thinking people are beginning to ask themselves whether there is not something more than a coincidence in the simultaneous discrediting of Imperialism, and of many of Imperialism's favorite instruments, that is now going on in more countries than one.

The declaration of martial law throughout all Cape Colony has doubtless been made at the demand of Gen. Kitchener. Both in Cape Town and in London the civil Government was averse to making the confession involved in the act. After two years of war to expel the Boer invader from a loyal colony, it is a little hard to have to admit that the invader is still there, and that the colony's loyalty is violently suspect. But military necessity tramples upon the sensibilities of Ministers. What Kitchener appears to have told the Government is that, if he was expected to pursue the policy of Thorough, he must be given the weapons to do it with. We may, therefore, expect severer measures, more executions for "treason," and other gentle ways of persuading the Boers that "the best government in the world" is being extended over them.

British trade returns for September contrast unfavorably with those of the United States. There has been a falling off in the volume of trade in many lines. Imports have declined heavily, particularly those of articles of food and drink, which are liable to duty, and of raw materials. The London *Economist*, however, says that trade is on the whole in a satisfactory condition. Prices have fallen, but the decline has in general been slight. They are still very high as compared with those ruling prior to 1898. Recent variations in the prices of wool and cotton, which threatened to disturb the textile industries, have proved only temporary, and the trade seems to be generally in good condition. Nevertheless, while it is true that the situation is not alarming, it seems to indicate that the depression in Continental industry is in a measure spreading to England. The significance of the situation to the United States lies in the possible check to our exports which has been so long anticipated, and which seems to be implied in the decline of British imports of certain raw products.

The recent reply of M. Delcassé, the French Foreign Minister, to the representative of the Charente wine-growers shows that the increasing demand for reciprocity is not confined to the United States. The wine-growers had asked for such tariff arrangements with Russia as would result in a decrease in duties on French wine and brandy. M. Delcassé pointed out that he had done what he could in this direction, but he complained that Russia had replied by asking a corresponding reduction in French duties on wheat and other Russian products, as well as the repeal of the practical interdict against Russian cattle now created by French sanitary regulations. The Russian requests will, of course, encounter strenuous opposition from the protected interests in Frence, and thus the question, as in all similar tariff controversies, becomes a conflict between domestic interests, each trying to get protection at the expense of the others. Nothing could illustrate better how tariff dues are paid, not by the foreigner, but by competitive producers or consumers in the home country. These things are done no better in America than in France.

The excitement in Berlin over the reelection of Herr Kaufmann as Second Bürgermeister is convincing evidence that autocratic rule cannot extinguish the inborn tendency of the German to stand up for his Constitutional rights. After having learned that Herr Kaufmann was *persona non grata* to the Imperial authorities, less courageous people than the members of the Municipal Council would have chosen some one else. The Councillors, on the contrary, have dared high official displeasure by reëlecting Herr Kaufmann, even after it was rumored that the Emperor himself had directed his rejection for certain trivial reasons connected with his military service, some twenty years ago. The refusal of the Governor of Brandenburg to transmit the certificate of the second election to the Emperor or to the Prussian Minister of the Interior will widen the growing breach between the capital and the court not a little, even if the plan for tramway lines across Unter den Linden should finally receive the Emperor's sanction, as now seems likely, in spite of his refusal to discuss the matter with the Bürgermeister. One of the chief reasons for Berlin's dislike of the Emperor is his continued absence from the city. Not for years has Berlin profited so little in a business way from the ostensible presence of the court as at present, and her tradesmen have not been slow to express their discontent.

Professor Suess of Vienna finds the plan of the new German tariff scheme faulty in theory, and very hard to put into practice. The main aim of the law was to keep the peasant on the land, and check the flow of population toward the towns by imposing high duties on cereals. It was supposed that these duties would make possible the payment of higher agricultural wages, by enabling landowners to get better prices for their products, and thus keep the peasants from drifting to the cities in search of work in manufacturing enterprises. The main error in this notion is, of course, found in the failure of the new law to provide any means of transferring the higher returns in agriculture from the pockets of landowners to those of laborers. It cannot be argued that, because the repeal of the British corn laws increased the growth of English towns, the reverse effect will be produced in Germany by the imposition of high duties. The real difficulty lies in the privileges of the great landowners and the existence of large estates, and can be removed only by changing these conditions. Professor Suess is right also in pointing out that no changes whatever can alter some of the main factors of the problem. The attractions of city life and the demand for personal service in cities will continue to make heavy drains on the rural population, tariff or no tariff.

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THE NEW CANAL TREATY.

The state of public opinion, both in this country and in Great Britain, on the Isthmian Canal question is much more placid than it was at the expiration of the last session of Congress. The Hay-Pauncefote treaty had been amended by the Senate in three particulars, and while these amendments did not seem objectionable to Great Britain in substance, they were objectionable in form. The chief objection was that one of these amendments bluntly declared the Clayton-Bulwer treaty abrogated. There is good reason for thinking that, if a friendly negotiation in the usual course of diplomacy had been initiated by our Government, having for its object the abrogation of that treaty, and the substitution in its place of the principles of the Hay-Pauncefote treaty, it would have been conceded by Lord Lansdowne. But the method adopted by the Senate of disposing of the older treaty without consultation or notice beforehand was too abrupt. Lord Lansdowne found himself confronted by precedents and by public opinion at home and on the Continent of Europe strongly opposed to that method of setting aside old agreements. So the Senate's amendments were rejected by Great Britain, and the treaty fell with the amendments.

Except for this matter of form, the amendments of the Senate were not in conflict with British interests, or with the contentions of the British Government. The amendments were three in number. The first declared the Clayton-Bulwer treaty superseded by the new treaty. The second provided that none of the conditions or stipulations in certain sections designated by their numbers should apply to measures which the United States might find it necessary to take for securing, by its own forces, the defence of the United States and the maintenance of order. The particular clause which forbade the fortification of the canal, or the water adjacent thereto, was not one of the sections thus designated. In other words, any measure which we might deem it necessary to take for our defence must stop short of the erection of fortifications commanding the canal or the entrances thereto. The third amendment simply struck out the clause which pledged the high contracting powers to invite other nations to adhere to the treaty. It did not forbid their doing so, but repealed the clause which imposed such action upon them as a matter of obligation.

The treaty as amended provided that the canal should be free and open in time of war, as in time of peace, to the vessels of commerce and of war of all nations, on terms of entire equality, without discrimination in charges, conditions of traffic, or otherwise. It stipulated also that no fortifications should be erected commanding the canal or the waters adjacent. These were the principles with which foreign nations were most concerned. Great Britain was more concerned with them than others, simply because her commerce was greater. They embraced the essential principles of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty.

The provisions of the new treaty have not been made public, but there have been outgivings through English newspapers that it embraces in substance the Senate amendments to the former treaty. We should not be surprised if it should so turn out. At the same time it would not be fair to assume that England has surrendered everything in the new arrangement, since she has gained the main point for which she contended in the former negotiation, viz., that an earlier treaty should not be set aside without previous consultation between the parties which had bound themselves by it. However, it is not for us to study the *amour propre* of Great Britain. We are concerned with our own future course of action. Assuming that the new treaty does embrace the substance of the Senate's amendments, can that body be depended on to ratify its own work a second time? Undoubtedly there are some members of the body of both political parties who are always on the lookout for disagreements with England, and who may be expected to turn corners on themselves in order to fulfil their destiny in this behalf. They are those who are most amenable to the influence of Irish discontent, of Home Rulers, Land Leaguers, Fenians, etc. They are less numerous, however, and less in evidence than at any former time in the present generation. They are not in sufficient force, we think, to put in peril the ratification of the new treaty.

The new treaty will have the prestige of both the late President McKinley, under whose eye the negotiation was conducted, and of President Roosevelt, who has adopted it and made it the first essay of foreign policy in his Administration—that is, the first in point of time. An additional source of strength may probably be found in the support of Senator Lodge, who, next to the late Senator Davis, was the most active member in promoting the amendments to the former treaty. It may be assumed that he will be moved, both by the feeling of parentage of those features of the treaty and by his friendship for the head of the new Administration, to give his hearty support to the new negotiation. It is needless to add that, if the Senate should reject a treaty which concedes the substance of all that it contended for last year, it would stand in a sinister light before the nation and the world.

OPPOSITION TO THE SHIP SUBSIDY.

Mr. Henderson, Speaker of the last House of Representatives, and destined to fill the same place in the new one, made a speech at Manchester, Iowa, on Thursday last, in which he touched upon several questions of public interest that are likely to receive attention at the coming session of Congress. Among the subjects selected for brief treatment was that of shipping subsidies, on which he delivered his opinion thus:

> "I have never discussed specifically the question of building up the merchant marine and the great shipping interests of the United States, but this question can no longer be neglected by those looking to the best interests of our country. It is a new problem to us to give financial aid to the ship interests, and I confess that I am not satisfied with any legislation thus far proposed by Congress; but if a wise plan can be devised looking to the interests of our commerce and the country and not to purely individual interests, then it should command careful, patriotic, and fearless attention."

The belief prevailed in Washington last winter that the Speaker was opposed to the Hanna-Payne bill in all the shapes that it assumed. He now confirms that belief by the express statement that he was "not satisfied with any legislation thus far proposed by Congress." The Hanna-Payne bill in its numerous amended forms is thus pitched out of the window. But that is not all. The Speaker gives no sign that he is in favor of any subsidy whatever. If a measure were proposed in the interests of commerce and the country, and "not purely individual interests," then it should receive "careful, patriotic, and fearless attention." This is as much as saying that the Hanna-Payne bill was, as we have frequently pointed out, a measure for purely individual interests. But even if the bill were purged of purely individual interests, Mr. Henderson would pledge himself only to give it careful attention. There is something to be said in favor of each ship floating on its own bottom, as of each tub standing on its own, and doubtless the ex-Speaker had this thought in his mind when he made his speech. Certainly the ship-subsidy schemers can find no encouragement in his remarks at Manchester. Yet we would not advise them to nominate a candidate in opposition to him for the next Speakership.

Mr. Henderson is not the only person who has treated the subsidy schemers to a dash of cold water lately. At the very time when Senators Hanna and Frye were in conference at Boston fixing up a new bill, the Republican Convention of Massachusetts assembled there and proceeded to damn the whole project with faint praise. They passed a resolution on the subject in these words:

> "Merchant Marine: We favor governmental aid in building up our merchant marine on a just and equitable basis toward all American citizens."

Seeing that the two leading Senatorial advocates of the Hanna-Payne bill were then laboring on this identical measure within sound of their voices, was it not

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unkind on the part of the Republicans of Massachusetts to veil their thoughts under such ambiguous language? Perhaps they had fore-knowledge of what the iron-workers and the cotton-spinners were about to assert on the subject. Hitherto the workingmen's organizations have had little to say about the subsidy—perhaps, because they did not thoroughly understand it. But, on the 2d inst., the National Bridge and Iron Workers held their Convention in Boston and passed resolutions condemning the ship-subsidy bill as "unwise, unfair, and unjustifiable." They went so far as to direct that a copy of the resolutions be sent to each Congressman representing their local unions, "to say that if he does not vote against said bill, the iron-workers will oppose his reëlection to Congress, regardless of party affiliations."

The National Spinners' Association of America also met at Boston and took similar action. After observing with pleasure that the shipping industry is now growing more rapidly than for many years past, they say that the ship-subsidy bill discriminates in favor of certain shipping interests, so allied together that they could, by the aid of the subsidy proposed for their benefit, form a Shipping Trust which would control the shipping business of this country; that this bill offers no help to the wage-earner or the producer, and holds out no hope for a reduction in freight rates, in which the masses of the people are interested. For these reasons the National Spinners' Association "protest against the consideration or passage by the next Congress of the ship-subsidy bill and urge our representatives to oppose it."

Of course, Senator Frye will report the bill again. Senator Hanna will support it, with an eye single to the public good, for which he has been so solicitous in times past, and he may pick up one or two Southern Democrats of the McLaurin type who are moved by like solicitude; but we think that the scheme has seen its best days, and that it will never be as strong again as it was in the last Congress.

AMERICAN CAPITAL ABROAD.

Recent economic developments have perhaps furnished no surprises greater than that caused by the appearance of American capital in foreign fields of investment. During the past twelvemonth large transportation interests in London have been acquired by one American capitalist, and an important British steamship line has passed under the control of another. More lately still extensive operations looking toward the control of the English tobacco trade have been undertaken. The purchase of Belgian glass works by an American company has shown that Continental industries, as well as English, may be invaded.

The encroachments of American capital are neither so extensive nor of so permanent a character as to warrant the extravagant anticipations here and there expressed. Taken for what they are worth, however, they indicate the existence of certain new conditions. American raw products, needless to say, have long enjoyed an extremely wide foreign market, and our manufactured goods have been for some time in increasing demand. But these facts must not be confused with the successful competition of American capitalists with foreign. That the United States would lead the way in productive enterprise of every sort was predicted by J. S. Mill more than fifty years ago. Although the revival of a high-tariff policy after the war hindered this prophecy from being realized, its fulfilment is now in plain sight, as is attested by this year's address of Sir Robert Giffen before the British Scientific Association. In this discussion Mr. Giffen made the most confident predictions regarding the future in store for the United States.

The appearance of American capital in foreign investment markets is a phenomenon of an entirely different character. Successful competition of American products with those of foreigners is proof only of the greater power of our machinery of production. Success of American capital in competition with foreign shows either that our opportunities of remunerative investment at home are becoming narrow, or that some corner of their field has been left uncultivated by our rivals. As a matter of fact, the present industrial situation is the result in some degree of both of these conditions. The increase of capital in the United States is demonstrated not merely by the marvellous growth of deposits and savings of all kinds, but by the considerable reduction in interest rates in New York and generally throughout the country. But abundance of capital must be spoken of relatively to the field for its investment, and it would be absurd to suppose that our natural resources have been as fully utilized as those of many other countries. The chief explanation of the movement of American capital abroad must be found in the form in which our industries are organized. To this must be added the fact that in some fields of enterprise opportunities have been strangely neglected by our competitors.

Both of these causes are purely personal in their nature, and can be attributed only to the superiority of the American business man. If the organization of our industry is more powerful or our investors are quicker to seize an opportunity for favorable investment, it must be because those in control of capital are better able to use it than are their competitors. The difference between American methods of organizing industry and those chiefly in vogue in foreign countries may be seen from the description recently issued by the Bureau of Foreign Commerce at Washington, under the title, "Trusts and Trade Combinations in Europe." From this volume it appears that the organization of industry abroad differs from American in that the combinations formed there are looser in structure, while the administrative control is far less centralized than with our own "Trusts." In Germany many of the recent combinations of capital are merely "selling-pools," similar to the American Pipe Trust of a few years ago. In these organizations the amount of production to be permitted is apportioned to each mill, and the agreement is merely "an iron-clad compact in which each contracting party agrees to submit without conditions to all rules and measures adopted by the syndicate, or in default to be fined for disobedience. In the allotment of orders the plants nearest the frontier or tidewater are favored, because they can most easily export their surplus, which, if allowed to accumulate, might depress the market at home." Similar organizations exist in England, as may be seen from the history of the cotton-thread and textile combinations. How inefficient these modes of organization really are is evident from the recent difficulties in the English textile industry and in the German coal and iron trade. That they are inadequate was testified when the American Tobacco Company secured its footing in England. It was then said that the only way to combat American competition would be found in a total reorganization of industry on American lines, by which was meant the introduction of our system of "Trusts."

But a mere question of organization should never be allowed to obscure the facts at the bottom of that condition. The superior organization of American industry can be attributed only to the greater efficiency and skill of the American. Investments of capital in foreign enterprises have occurred in those lines of business which had been shamefully slighted by foreign capitalists. Even the most casual observer could not fail to be impressed by the weakness of English municipal transportation, as compared with our own, while the situation in other lines may perhaps be fairly represented by the state of the iron trade, in which many processes that were discarded by American manufacturers, ten years ago, are still employed. There is no ground for foreign investors to fear competition with surplus American capital driven from home to contest with them their too limited opportunities. Recent industrial history is merely a demonstration of power on our part to earn profits where their possibility was unsuspected by others.

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CREDULITY ABOUT TAMMANY.

"It has made them so credulous," said Mr. Gladstone once, speaking of men, like the Duke of Westminster, who had been "thrown off their balance by Home Rule." He referred, doubtless, to the extravagant things they were led to believe and say of himself, bent on "wrecking the Empire," and so on, as they alleged him to be. For all this they handsomely apologized when Gladstone died. But political credulity did not die. The capacity of ordinarily reasonable and sagacious men to deceive themselves when political passions are aroused and political prejudices appealed to, and to believe what they wish to in the face of the plainest evidence to the contrary, is endless and indestructible. It is this easy political credulousness alone which explains the readiness of some good men to see a sign of repentance and a promise of reform, on the part of Tammany, in its nomination of Mr. Shepard.

Mr. Shepard himself has declared it a "sinister" act to go on distrusting Tammany after it has put on a mask of respectability; and one of his supporters asserted in the columns of the *Evening Post*, last week, that the nomination of Mr. Shepard proves Tammany now to be willing "to coöperate with the reformers" in trying to secure "good government under new leadership." Now we shall not yield to a natural impulse to scoff at such simplicity, and to remind Messrs. Shepard and Emmet of the saying of Mephistopheles in Auerbach's cellar—namely, that some people have no suspicion of the devil even when he has them by the throat. We prefer to argue the case seriously. And what we say is that Tammany must be judged, not by a single act, but by its general course; that a fountain cannot give forth both sweet water and bitter; that a worthy name at the head of the ticket may be intended as but a screen for the suspicious characters all the way down; and that before we are asked to believe in the sincerity of repentance, we must be shown its meet fruits.

Tammany's completed ticket is now before the city. Does it argue any real intention to purge and live cleanly? A man who will believe that would believe anything. Putting Mr. Shepard's name one side, the nominations are made strictly on the old Tammany principles. The service of ruffians is rewarded. Subserviency gets its price. Arrangements are craftily made to tie Mr. Shepard's hands as tightly as possible, in case he is elected. And in the chief engineer's room is Croker, pulling the levers and working for his own pocket all the time. That is what the average clear-eyed and open-minded man sees Tammany doing. He does not so easily forget the past. He remembers the boasted "new Tammany" of 1890; and he also remembers how it speedily showed itself in 1894 to be the same old rotten Tammany. The more it changes, the more it is the same thing.

We have, as reasonable men, to consider the balance of probabilities. Which is more likely, that Tammany took Mr. Shepard as an earnest of reform, or as a means of preventing imminent defeat and of staving off real reform? The theory of Mr. Shepard's friends is that Croker went about looking for the most incorruptible nominee possible, and jumped at the name of Mr. Shepard. But there are a dozen theories with more facts on their side than this. One of them is the theory so plainly certified to by the open statements of the Brooklyn Democratic machine—that is, that Croker was the victim of a trick; that he was frightened at the revolt in Tammany in behalf of Mr. Coler, and agreed to take any Brooklyn man except Coler; and that then the Brooklyn schemers named Mr. Shepard. That supposition is certainly more in accord with the known facts than the hypothesis that Croker's instinctive longing was for an honest and reforming Mayor.

But what more could Tammany have done? it is plaintively asked. Much more, we assert, and much more might have been done by Mr. Shepard. He has appealed to Tilden, and to Tilden shall he go. It was in 1871 that Mr. Tilden, as Chairman of the Democratic State Committee, was asked to make a compromise with Tweed. He was told that he could "name every delegate in the State Convention" if he would assent. Other offers were repeatedly made to him to induce him to "let up" on Boss Tweed and to be "regular," but, said Mr. Tilden:

> "I always declined, telling them that I would not surrender; and I told the State Convention distinctly that I felt it to be my duty to oppose any men who would not go for making the government of the city what it should be, at whatever cost or sacrifice; and that if they did not deem that regular, *I would retire, and take position in the ranks of my plundered fellow-citizens.*"

Mr. Tilden did retire, in the sense that he supported the Republicans, feeling sure, he said, that they could not overthrow the Tweed ring "unaided," and that it was his duty to stand by them in the attack upon a "band of cormorants." This Mr. Shepard might have done in opposition to the cormorants of 1901. Or, if he were the strong and determined man his friends represent him, he could have insisted upon dictating the Tammany platform—cutting out its brazen glorification of its own misdeeds; he could have insisted upon naming the candidates to be associated with him, and, if his own terms were not met, he could have contemptuously left Tammany to wallow in its own pit. But, having done none of these things, having consented to stand on a Tammany platform, surrounded by Tammany associates, with no word of apology for the past or promise for the future, he cannot blame citizens who think him a victim of Tammany wiles. He may have been misled by an honorable ambition; his faithful friends may have been tricked; but no man who has studied and known Tammany as the chief public enemy can be credulous enough to suppose that it is not his first duty to wage unceasing war against the unclean thing.

MR. SHEPARD ON PLEDGES.

An English statesman was accused of taking "too literary" a view of politics. Mr. Shepard's fault is that of taking too narrowly legal a view. His speech on Saturday night was that of a *nisi-prius* lawyer. He argued as one who had been retained in a difficult case, and who thought, by subtle distinctions and by skilful special pleading, to obscure the great issues of fact and policy which glare at the common mind. In his dread of being specific and his horror of naming names, he gave the impression of an amiable philosopher dwelling in a vacuum and reasoning about abstract quiddities, instead of grappling resolutely with the concrete corruption and the embodied knavery upon which the excited attention of all citizens of New York is now fastened.

Mr. Shepard put his refusal to give a pledge to remove definitely named and offensive officials on high Constitutional grounds, and accused Mr. Low of having practically violated his oath of office in advance by publicly promising to drive out Murphy and Devery from the Police Department at his earliest opportunity. Why, exclaimed the pained Mr. Shepard, Mr. Low has overlooked the fact that the "successful candidate" must make oath that he has "not made any promise to influence the giving or withholding of any vote." Now, to answer a lawyer according to his legality, we have to say that Mr. Shepard is wholly wrong as to his law. The Mayor of New York has to take no such oath as he describes. The Constitutional provision which he cites applies to "members of the Legislature and all officers [of the State], executive and judicial, except such as shall be by law exempted." In the Charter of New York, the oath of office for this city is said, in section 1548, simply to be "faithfully to perform the duties of his office."

But we would not rest the matter upon a fragile technicality like that. Mr. Shepard appeals to the spirit and "fundamental theory" of the provision in the State Constitution against making "any promise" to influence voters. But are his eyes so blinded that he cannot see how the whole implication is of a *corrupt* promise? It stands in immediate connection with the prohibition of bribery by "money or other valuable thing." Who would be earlier or louder than Mr. Shepard, if his mind were working

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with its normal lucidity, in laughing at the contention that Mr. Low's pledge to remove two rascals from office is in violation of the Constitution?~ Why, a strained and fantastic interpretation of that kind would prevent a candidate from making any declaration of his purposes whatever. He could not promise to be honest or economical; he could not vow to be pure in office and to choose only fit subordinates; he could not open his lips to tell interested and expectant voters what he intended or hoped to do for their benefit, without having Mr. Shepard, in his present mood, down upon him with the threat of a judicial ouster for having violated the Constitution! Surely, Mr. Shepard's much meditation on an ingenious defence of silence about Devery has made him mad.

And the worst of it is, that Mr. Shepard's dramatic refusal to give an unconstitutional pledge was immediately followed up by his giving such a pledge. He would not name Devery or Murphy; that would be too shocking. But he did make the "public pledge" (flatly unconstitutional, as he had just maintained) to have a Police Commissioner who would represent "by day or by night the ideas of public order, public morality, and public decency which are held by Edward M. Shepard." There can be no doubt that he intended that to be taken by the enemies of Devery as equivalent to saying that he must go. It is so taken and proclaimed by Mr. Shepard's friends. But how futile and unfortunate is Mr. Shepard's attitude of promising in effect what he refuses with indignation to promise in words. Moreover, directly after rebuking Mr. Low for notifying Devery that he would be removed from office, Mr. Shepard gave his own pledge to Devery *not* to remove him except under conditions. He said: "No man, whatever my present impressions or opinion of him, and however strong my impression may be now, shall, by any promise I now give, be deprived of the right to submit his case to me as a sworn Mayor in office, ready, with an unclosed mind, to hear his defence, if he has one." That is a distinct pledge to Devery. It may hold out no ultimate hope for him, but it is a promise, calculated to "influence" him and his fellow-ruffians in the giving of their votes to Mr. Shepard, and is a promise by a man who had just called heaven to witness that he would never make one!

Mr. Shepard's speech shows him to have a refining and elusive turn of mind most unhappy in a man called upon to attack the enormous problem of municipal reform. People will fear that a man who can find such far-fetched and hair-splitting reasons for not saying in advance that he will do a certain thing, may discover some recondite excuse for not doing it afterwards. And his shrinking from the mention of publicly recognized scoundrels by name is very much to his prejudice at this juncture. People think of personalities, not abstractions. They do not care about corruption in the abstract, but want to get rid of individual corruptionists. To the voters of New York, inefficiency and indecency in the Police Department are only another way of spelling the names of Murphy and Devery. Why should Mr. Shepard be so timid about names that are in everybody's mouth but his?

His excessive caution, his arguing away like an Irrefragable Doctor instead of a fearless fighter, cannot but chill and alarm his oldest friends. Certainly, the situation in this city requires great plainness of speech and a pamphlet-like singling out of offenders by name. In place of his remote speculation about abstract principles of law, Mr. Shepard would appear to vastly better advantage if he would be as precise and personal as Mr. Low. The Tammany candidate seemed to think his pose was heroic in refusing to say the word "Devery." But heroic, or melodramatic, or however it may be called, it was not the posture of an unflinching reformer or of a prophet unafraid. When the city of Jerusalem was in a bad way, the word of the Lord came to his messenger with entire disregard of the feelings of a corrupt official. "Go, get thee unto this treasurer, even unto Shebna [Hebrew for Devery] and say, What doest thou here? . . . *I will thrust thee from thy office.*" But they "didn't know everything down in Judee," neither did they live under the mysterious inhibitions of the Constitution of the State of New York!

SWISS MOUNTAIN RAILWAYS AND PASSES.

VILLA SERBELLONI,
BELLAGGIO, September 16, 1901.

When Adolf Guyer-Zeller, the enterprising Swiss railway president, died two years and a half ago, it was commonly assumed that the railway up to the summit of the Jungfrau (13,670 feet above sea level), which he had projected and commenced building would never be completed. The last edition of Baedeker's 'Switzerland' (a book which is always surprisingly up to date and omniscient) declares that his death "has made the complete realization of this bold undertaking somewhat problematical." When I arrived in the Bernese Oberland, a few weeks ago, I was therefore eager to ascertain the state of affairs at headquarters.

Before going to the Little Scheidegg, where the Jungfrau Railway begins, we spent a couple of weeks on the opposite slope, at Mürren—a proceeding which I commend to all tourists who have plenty of time, because, in my opinion, no other easily accessible place in Switzerland except Zermatt commands, from the eminences surrounding it, such glorious views of giant peaks, vast snowfields, and stupendous glaciers. The amphitheatric grouping, too, of the snowy mountains makes Mürren perhaps the best of all Swiss resorts for admiring the Alpine glow after sunset, which always causes a stampede for the door among the guests of the Hôtel des Alpes in the middle of dinner. The finest viewpoint in the neighborhood is the Schilthorn, which even women who are not experts can climb. Its summit is 9,753 feet high, and just as we reached it, an avalanche tumbled down from the snowfields of the Tschingelhorn, directly opposite, which several guides, who happened to be present, said was the grandest they had ever seen. A mass of snow and ice bigger than a cathedral fell straight down the precipitous rock, at least two thousand feet. Half way down, a ledge divided it into two falls, while a fresh supply of snow from above made the white, thundering mass continuous from top to bottom.

It was while coming down from the Schilthorn to Mürren one day in August, 1893, that Guyer-Zeller conceived the plan for the Jungfrau Railroad that is at present being carried out. Before him lay the giant group consisting of the Eiger, Mönch, and Jungfrau, and far below them, looking like a child's toy, was the Wengernalp Railway, taking tourists up to the Scheidegg. "Why not begin the Jungfrau Railway at the Scheidegg instead of in the Lauterbrunnen or Grindelwald valley?" he said to himself. "That would give us a start and a saving of 3,500 to 4,000 feet." The arrangements were made in accordance with this plan, and in September, 1898, the first section of the road was ready for use. Today the Swiss time-tables have a section headed "Jungfrau-Bahn"—nine trains a day from Scheidegg to Eiger Glacier in sixteen minutes, and thence, in eight minutes more, to the second station, Rothstock, at an altitude of 8,270 feet. This, to be sure, leaves 5,400 feet still to be ascended; but the technical difficulties have all been triumphantly overcome, and the sole question now to be solved is of a financial nature. Will this railway, if sufficient money for its completion can be raised, ever pay?

This question was, of course, considered at the outset. It was estimated that the total cost would be about $2,000,000, and the gross annual receipts nearly $150,000, which would leave a fair margin for a profit. It was natural to suppose that Guyer-Zeller's sanguine nature had led him to overestimate the future receipts; but present indications seem to point the other way. We did not ourselves patronize the new railway, but walked from the Scheidegg to the Eiger Glacier and back; the trains that passed us were crowded. The cost of the round trip from Scheidegg to the present terminus is just a dollar. I see in a Berne newspaper that the number of passengers carried by the Wengernalp Railway, which feeds the Jungfrau Railway from the Lauterbrunnen Valley, was 43,835 during the single month of August—a gain of 3,395 over August, 1900. The cost of a second-class round-trip ticket to the Scheidegg (including ascent or descent on the Grindelwald side) is nearly $5; and it stands to reason that a large proportion of those who go as far as the Scheidegg would be glad to pay the additional $7, which would take them to the top of the Jungfrau—commanding a view of unspeakable grandeur—and back again. At present the cost of the ascent of this mountain, with guides and a porter, is $20 to $40 for each person, not to speak of the toil—to

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which few are equal—and the danger to life or limb.

Fredrich Wrubel, the inspector of the Jungfrau Railway, has written a ninety-two page brochure, 'Ein Winter in der Gletscherwelt,' which, I am not surprised to find, is already in its third edition. As its title intimates, it describes some of the novel experiences of the builders of the Jungfrau Railway during a winter spent at the entrance to the tunnel, by the side of the huge and magnificent Eiger glacier. Up to that time this famous glacier had been merely ornamental; it was now made useful, too, for the time being. As all communication with Lauterbrunnen and Interlaken was cut off during the winter storms, it was necessary to put the perishable parts of the supply of food needed for eighty men into cold storage, and for this the crevasses of the glacier seemed just the place. It was found, however, that the meat thus stored spoiled too soon after being thawed out, so it was decided to bring up live cattle, swine, and sheep, for the next winter. As to water, the glacier remained the only source, besides the fresh snow, which was melted by electricity, of which there was enough and to spare for all purposes. Electricity lighted and heated the buildings and cooked the food, besides boring the tunnel and moving the construction-cars—all at an elevation of a mile and a half above sea!

The laborers were well taken care of. They received from 86 to 94 cents a day, besides good food and lodging, each man having six blankets to keep him warm at night. Moreover, the company took care of those who fell ill, and gave each one a free life or disability insurance for $1,200. But, as Herr Wrubel remarks, "the better some laborers are treated, the more they demand." There was a strike; the men asking, among other things, for their full wages on Sundays and holidays because they were not *allowed* to work! This was too much for the directors, and they paid off twenty of the most obstreperous men. These realized their folly at once, and endeavored repeatedly to get back; but the directors decided to make an example of them, and their places were at once filled. A pathetic account is also given of the only serious accident that occurred, six men, owing to non-observance of the rules regarding the use of dynamite, being blown to fragments in the tunnel. The funeral procession, amid these wintry Alpine surroundings, must have been as impressive a scene, even without music, as Siegfried's death in Wagner's opera. Herr Wrubel also describes the æsthetic aspects of the scenery, and what he says on this head is tantalizing and somewhat exasperating to us summer tourists; for he tells us that in winter the mountains are clearer and look higher and more shapely than in summer, the sunsets and the Alpine glow are more thrilling, the moon and starlight effects incomparable, and the storms tremendously exciting and delightful to those who love Nature in her wildest moods. Of scientific interest are the remarks on pp. 26, 27, where the author describes the changing colors of the glacier, which were found to be more reliable weather prophets than the costliest barometers.

The Jungfrau tunnel has now reached an altitude of about 9,100 feet above sea-level, and will, therefore, soon attain the level of the Gornergrat Railroad at Zermatt (10,290), which is at present the highest railway in Europe. The chief engineer, M. Gobat, declares that the highest and most difficult section of the Jungfrau Railway will, if completed, hardly pay for itself; but in any case, he says, the tunnel will have to be carried up to the Jungfraujoch, 11,090 feet above sea. Here the passengers will step from the cars right on to the seemingly illimitable dazzling snowfields, whence it is a climb of only 2,580 feet to the summit. The superb view from the Jungfraujoch will in itself repay the trip; but the projectors of the road have planned a bold scheme, which will fascinate tourists by its striking novelty as well as its intrinsic attractiveness. As soon as the trains run up to this station it will be possible to cross over from the Bernese Oberland to the Valais region, not by means of a mountain railway on the other side, but on sleighs speeding across the moderate and smooth slopes of the huge Aletsch glacier, which is only ten kilometres from Brig, where the Simplon tunnel begins, and whence also Zermatt and the Matterhorn can be reached in a few hours more by rail.

Switzerland has long felt the need of a short and direct road connecting, as will the one just described, the Oberland and the Valais, especially for the benefit of tourists (and the republic lives on tourists) whose time is limited. When one looks at the map, the détours one has to make at present seem comic. As the bee flies, it is only about twenty miles from Mürren to Brig, in the Rhone valley, but on account of the intervening mountain giants one needs two days or more, by carriage or on foot, to go from one of those points to the other by way of the Grimsel or Gemmi pass, or a very long day by rail via Berne and Lausanne—which is like going from New York to Tarrytown by way of Boston and Albany. About ten years ago a railway was planned to run from Spiez, near Interlaken, to the Rhone Valley in the Valais, and a small section of road, commanding splendid views of the Blümlisalp and other snow-peaks was opened this summer as far as Frutigen; but the remainder calls for so long and expensive a tunnel that it will probably not be completed for another decade if ever.

Personally, I do not care if this railway—or any railway that depends for its existence on a long tunnel—is ever built. I prefer to walk over the tunnels, as high as possible, for mountain passes seem to me the most interesting of all points of view. As seen from the valleys, the peaks are of course higher; but, being less near, they are not so imposing. From the peaks one can look down only, but from the passes one looks up, too, at the snowy summits, which are the crowning glory of all. The desolate and forbidding aspect of the passes in their highest stretches affects a true mountain-lover like a grand tragedy; and when he has enjoyed this to the full, a delight of a different sort awaits him in the descent, on the other side, into the smiling green valleys. We specially planned our trip this year so as to take in as many passes as possible, and to enjoy twice the sudden passage from the Swiss snowfields to the luxuriant chestnuts, figs, and vineyards of Italy. From Munich we went to Thusis, via Lindau and Chur; then up the Splügen pass and down on the San Bernardino side—where the quaint Italian villages clinging to the steep mountain slopes add much to the interest of the scene—as far as Bellinzona. Thence back to Switzerland and—by way of exception, to gain time—ignominiously through the St. Gothard tunnel, which, by the way, is not so well ventilated as it used to be.

At Goeschenen we left the train and walked to the top of the Furka pass, where, after a day of rain, we enjoyed the sunrise on the snowfields of the well-named Finsteraarhorn and the Schreckhorn—two of the Bernese peaks which it is difficult to see elsewhere to such advantage. From the Furka down to the Rhone Glacier, and up again across the Grimsel pass, was a day's tramp, fatiguing but glorious, as we had never before been favored with such perfect weather in this region. On leaving the Oberland, we took the Gemmi pass on the way to the Matterhorn, and, after spending ten days at the Riffelalp and the Schwarzsee, we went to Brig and across the Simplon pass down again into Italy and to the Villa Serbelloni, the finest point on the Italian lakes. I give this itinerary because, after spending half-a-dozen summers in Switzerland, it is the one I should specially commend to friends intending to visit that country. It does not include the Engadine, Lucerne, and the Mont Blanc region; but these can be readily embraced in the plan I have given without changing it essentially. I must once more express my surprise and indignation at the American tourists, the vast majority of whom waste their time at such fashionable resorts as St. Moritz, Lucerne, Interlaken, and Geneva, and then fancy they have seen Switzerland. The English know much better where to go, and the Germans and French have gradually learned from them the best places to stay at. Unfortunately, the English have also inconsistently attempted to introduce at the high Alpine resorts the vulgar absurdity of full dress at dinner; but luckily, in that respect, the Continental tourists do not follow their example. I wonder if Englishmen take their evening dress along when they go on hunting trips or to explore Central Africa?

The Simplon is rather too long a pass to walk, so we took the diligence. I cannot agree with Baedeker that the Simplon is preëminent among Alpine passes in point of scenery. I prefer the Furka and the Splügen-Bernardino. But the Simplon is magnificent, no doubt, and it is sad to think that it will become practically a thing of the past, so far as tourists are concerned, when the Simplon Railway is completed, which will be in 1904, or, at the latest, 1905. It was interesting to see the men—miles of them—at work on the Italian side. At Iselle, the southern entrance to the tunnel (which will be 12½ miles long, or 3¼ miles longer than the St. Gothard), a mushroom town has sprung up, with hundreds of wooden houses, mostly hotels, restaurants, beer and wine taverns, clothing, fruit, and provision stores, looking a good deal like a Western American mining town, though with plenty of Italian local color roughly splashed on.

The Simplon, to be sure, is not a real mountain railway, as it dodges all difficulties by creeping through a tunnel. Of genuine mountain railroads—the kind that climb steep slopes—there are now in Switzerland no fewer than twenty-three, and several others are projected. The

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names of those now in operation are Vitznau-Rigi, Arth-Rigi (there is a demand for a third one up the Rigi!), Uetliberg, Rorschach-Heiden, Lausanne-Ouchy, Bürgenstock, Pilatus, Beatenberg, Salvatore, Berner-Oberland, Lauterbrunnen-Mürren (the lower part of which will also be changed to electricity next year), Schynige Platte, Visp-Zermatt, Gornergrat, Brienz-Rothorn, Rheineck - Walzenhausen, Wengernalp, Stanserhorn, Dolder, Jungfraubahn, Stanstad-Engelberg, Reichenbach, Lausanne-Signal. I see that the Polygraphic Institute at Zürich has just issued a book on these twenty-three railways, with technical information as well as scenic descriptions, and 329 illustrations.

They must be doing a brisk business, these mountain railways, or there would not be so many of them. In their rapid multiplication, I see one of the most characteristic distinctions between Switzerland and Norway. We visited Norway in July under the impression that it was a mountainous country. So it is, no doubt; there are thousands of mountains, but there are no arrangements for stopping on them, the hotels being, with very few exceptions, built at sea level, along the fjords. I met other tourists, who, like ourselves, hunted eagerly for mountain hotels, but could not find any. The Swiss are wiser. They build their hotels where they are wanted, up the mountains, at elevations of from 2,000 to 10,000 feet above the sea, where the air is most bracing and the scenery most imposing; and they build mountain railways to make them comfortably accessible. There are, to be sure, individuals who growl that these railways and hotels spoil the Alps; but that is arrant nonsense. They make them accessible to thousands, where formerly only a few dozen robust persons could enjoy them; and as for solitude, there is not a Swiss mountain hotel whence one cannot, by ten minutes' walk, get to spots where all sound and sight of man vanishes, and one can be alone with Nature in her sublimest moods. HENRY T. FINCK.

PRINCESS LIEVEN.—I.

PARIS, October 3, 1901.

It is interesting to note that, since the democratic element is becoming more predominant, the part played in politics by women is becoming less and less apparent. It is partly because, in a state of society which is more or less aristocratic, the influence of what the French call the *salons* is perforce important. Among the ladies who played a notable part in politics in the first half of the nineteenth century there is one who, in many respects, has remained somewhat enigmatic, namely, the Princess Lieven, so well known for many years in England as well as in France. M. Ernest Daudet, brother of the famous novelist Alphonse Daudet, well known himself by some valuable historical works, has had the good fortune to be allowed to see the voluminous correspondence of Princess Lieven and M. Guizot, so long Prime Minister under Louis-Philippe. M. Daudet has lately written an essay on Princess Lieven which is extremely remarkable, not only in an historical but also, I may say, in a psychological sense, as it throws a great light on the relations of M. Guizot, who was an austere Protestant, with Princess Lieven—relations which have not always been quite intelligible, and in which personal affection and sentimentality were curiously mixed with the treatment of the great affairs of the world.

Dorothea of Benkendorff was born in Russia in the year 1784. At the age of sixteen she became *demoiselle d'honneur* to Maria Fedorovna, wife of Tsar Paul I. The Empress married her to Gen. Count Lieven, Minister of War, who became afterwards Prince Lieven. Though Lieven was Minister at the age of twenty-four, he seems to have been a very ordinary man; there was a difference of seven years between husband and wife. In 1809 Lieven was appointed Ambassador to Berlin, where his wife followed him. It was at Berlin that Madame de Lieven became acquainted with the diplomats and statesmen of the time, at a period when Napoleon was still in the ascendant and kept all Europe in a state of fermentation and anxiety.

In 1812 Lieven was appointed Ambassador to London at a very critical period: Napoleon's campaign in Russia was beginning. The Tsar Alexander had renewed with England the diplomatic relations which had been interrupted by the Peace of Tilsit. Madame de Lieven became all-important in English society. The Prince Regent invited her constantly, and she had to meet familiarly his mistresses. It was said at the time her relations with the Prince Regent were not exactly correct, and those rumors lasted even from 1818 to 1820, at a time when she notoriously felt a great passion for Metternich, whose acquaintance she had made at the Congress of Aix-la-Chapelle. M. Daudet has not sufficiently used the Greville Memoirs, which are one of the most valuable historical documents of our time. Greville says:

"The Regent, afterwards George IV., delighted in her company, and she was a frequent guest at the Pavilion, and on very intimate terms with Lady Conyngham, for although Madame de Lieven was not very tolerant of mediocrity, and social and colloquial superiority was necessary to her existence, she always made great allowances for Royalty and those immediately connected with it."

I find in Greville a portrait of Madame de Lieven at the time when she came to England:

"She was at least in the prime of life, and, though without any pretensions to beauty, and, indeed, with some personal defects, she had so fine an air and manner, and a countenance so pretty and so full of intelligence, as to be, on the whole, a very striking and attractive person—quite enough so to have lovers, several of whom she engaged in succession without seriously attaching herself to any."

Greville does not name Metternich among those lovers; he says: "Those who were most notoriously her slaves at different times were the present Lord Willoughby, the Duke of Sutherland (then Lord Gower), the Duke of Canizzaro (then Count San Antonio); and the Duke de Palmella." But Daudet cites letters which prove that Metternich had a right to figure in this list. In February, 1819, she could not be consoled on being separated from Metternich; on September 3 of the same year she writes to him from Middleton, where she was the guest of Lady Jersey:

"Nothing so good as a journey. I am well to-night because I have made seventy miles. If I did as much every day, I should soon be near you. But, my friend, notwithstanding my efforts, I must remain here. Tell me, what will become of us? Can you bear the idea of a still longer separation? If we are resigned for the year 1819, do you think that we can be so for the year 1820? Tell me, Clement, what will become of us? Do you think of that?"

I must add that, in this letter, Madame Lieven uses all the time the *tu* instead of *vous*, which is a mark of much greater intimacy. Metternich was probably not so ardent, though he wrote to her: "I love you (*je t'aime*) as much as I did at the foot of Vesuvius, or among the ruins of Pæstum, or in the Champs-Élysées." M. Daudet gives other passages from Madame de Lieven's letters to Metternich which prove that her affection for him was very strong. Louis XVIII. used to call Metternich "le cher z'amant," in allusion to this liaison, and probably to some vice of pronunciation either in Metternich or in Madame de Lieven. The Princess again met Metternich in 1823 at the Congress of Verona, but she was now forty years old, and the intimacy came to an end.

She returned to London, where she remained till 1834. She became almost a member of the British aristocracy.

"It was her duty," says Greville, "as well as her inclination, to cultivate the members of all the successive Cabinets which passed before her, and she became the friend of Lord Castlereagh, of Canning, the Duke of Wellington, Lord Grey, Lord Palmerston, John Russell, Aberdeen, and many others of inferior note, and she was likewise one of the *habitués* of Holland House, which was always more or less neutral ground, even when Lord Holland was himself a member of the Government."

After the Revolution of 1830, there was great tension between France and Russia. The Tsar Nicolas would for a long time not recognize Louis-Philippe. Talleyrand was sent to London as a member of the Conference which had to decide the fate of Belgium.

"When Talleyrand," says Greville, "came over as Ambassador, there was for some time a sort of antagonism between the two embassies, and particularly between the ladies of each; but Madame de Dino (now Duchesse de Sagan), the niece of Talleyrand, was so clever, and old Talleyrand himself so remarkable and so agreeable, that Madame de Lieven was irresistibly drawn towards them."

The beginning of their acquaintance, however was rather trying. Madame de Lieven had the impudence to say to Talleyrand that she felt much surprised at seeing him. "In 1814 you placed Louis XVIII. on the throne; is it not strange that you should now represent the Duke d'Orléans as King of France?" Talleyrand said in answer: "Yes, madam, it is strange, and in 1814 I ought perhaps to have followed the advice of your Emperor Alexander, who was hostile to Louis XVIII. and to the Bourbons, and who advised me to induce the Senate to give the crown to the Duke d'Orléans. I have always remembered it, and, you see, I have now been able to follow his advice." Madame de Lieven was answered, and from that moment she felt that she had better not thwart Talleyrand; in fact, she became very intimate with him, and showed every kind of attention to his niece, Madame de Dino. "Her greatest friend in England," says Greville, "was Lady Cowper, afterwards Lady Palmerston, and through her she was also the friend of Palmerston."

In 1834 the Lievens were recalled and had to return to Saint Petersburg. She found

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the stay there odious; her two children fell ill and died almost at the same time. She left Russia, fearing its climate for herself, and went to Italy, where her husband died in 1836. She never returned to Russia. She obtained from the Emperor permission to travel, and he, says M. Daudet, "specially charged her to write to him regularly, as she did when she was Ambassadress, so as to transmit to him the result of her observations on men and things in Continental politics." Madame de Lieven settled in France in 1836, and was soon at home there, familiarizing herself by degrees with a state of things which she called "equalitarian," so different at that time from the aristocratic society of England. Being a foreigner, she could see the Legitimists as well as the Orleanists; she was received at the Tuileries as well as in the Faubourg St.-Germain. She was acquainted with all the diplomatic world. After she had been some little time in Paris, Metternich wrote to the Austrian Ambassador in France: "I am surprised that you never mention in your dispatches to me Prince Talleyrand, nor Count Pozzo di Borgo, nor the Princess Lieven. She must be agitating in some direction, for it is not in her nature ever to remain quiet." "Her salon," says Greville, "became the rendezvous of the best society, and particularly the neutral ground on which eminent men and politicians of all colors could meet, and where her tact and adroitness made them congregate in a sort of social truce." She soon became acquainted with the most important men of the period, with Count Molé, who was a sort of connecting link between the old and the new régime; with M. Thiers, who represented eminently the ideas of the Revolution; with Guizot; with Berryer, the most eloquent of the Legitimists. Her acquaintance with Guizot assumed by degrees a character of intimacy which contributed to fix her completely in France, and it is concerning this closing period of her life and the history of her relations with the man who was for many years, up to the Revolution of 1848, Prime Minister of France, that M. Daudet gives us very abundant and interesting details.

Notes.

D. Appleton & Co. are about to publish 'Some Women I Have Known,' by Maarten Maartens; 'Student Life and Customs,' by Prof. Henry D. Sheldon of the University of Oregon; 'Lincoln in Story,' compiled by Silas G. Pratt; 'The French People,' by Arthur Hassall; 'Modern Scandinavian Literature,' by Dr. Georg Brandes; 'The Living Races of Mankind,' by H. N. Hutchinson; 'Bookbinding and the Care of Books,' by Douglas Cockerell; 'Britain and the North Atlantic,' by H. J. Mackinder; 'The Nearer East,' by D. G. Hogarth; and 'Financial Crises and Periods of Industrial and Commercial Depression,' by Theodore E. Burton.

Macmillan's latest announcements are 'A Sketch of Semitic Origins, Social and Religious,' by Prof. George A. Barton of Bryn Mawr; 'Select Documents of English History,' by Profs. George B. Adams of Yale and H. Morse Stephens of Cornell; 'Mediæval London,' by Canon W. Benham and Charles Welch; and 'Mexico as I Saw It,' by Mrs. Alec Tweedie.

'The Ruling Passion,' by Henry van Dyke; a second series of 'Views and Reviews,' by W. E. Henley; 'Lives of the Hunted,' by Ernest Seton-Thompson; a sketch of the life of John Trumbull, with a catalogue of his works, by John F. Weir; 'Orloff and his Wife,' translated by Miss Hapgood from the Russian of Maxim Gorky; and 'The Book of the Courtier,' translated by L. E. Opdycke from the Italian of Baldassare Castiglione, are forthcoming from Charles Scribner's Sons.

McClure, Phillips & Co. are about to issue a second volume of Edwin Markham's Poems; and they will have the American imprint of Dent's new edition of Boswell's Johnson in three large volumes, with a topographical introduction by Austin Dobson. The general editor is Arnold Glover. The portrait illustrations will be numerous.

'Fame and Fiction,' a discussion of modern literary celebrities, is in the press of E. P. Dutton & Co.

'The A B C of Banking,' by George M. Coffin, Vice-President of the Phœnix National Bank, will form the fourth volume in the Wall Street Library Series of S. A. Nelson.

Directly to appear with Lippincott's imprint is 'Old Dutch Towns,' by Van W. J. Tuin, with illustrations by W. O. J. Nieuwenkamp.

Among forthcoming works from the Clarendon Press are the Oxford India paper Dickens; Skeat's complete edition of Chaucer, and a miniature volume of Browning's 'Dramatic Lyrics and Romances and Other Poems,' by way of addition to the Oxford Poets series; a complete edition (the first) of Thomas Kyd's extant works, edited by F. S. Boas; 'Nova Legenda Anglie,' first printed by Wynkyn de Worde in 1516, now edited by Dr. Carl Horstmann; and the Peshitto version of the Gospels, edited by G. H. Gwilliam.

Mr. C. H. St. J. Hornby is issuing from his private press ("The Ashendene Press," Shelley House, Chelsea, London) a small edition of Tyndale's translation of 'The Revelacion of Sanct Jhon the Devine.' The printing is from an old fount of black letter, in double column, in black and red; size, a small quarto. Only ten of the fifty-four copies will be for sale. Subscriptions at two guineas may be sent to the above address. Mr. Hornby also contemplates printing Dante's 'Inferno' in the Italian text, from a new fount modelled after an old fifteenth-century fount. The initial letter of each canto may be illumined by hand, and there will be several wood-cut illustrations in the old manner. This, too, will be a limited edition, but not so restricted in numbers.

One of the most beautiful volumes that the past week has brought to our table is 'The New Life of Dante Alighieri; Translation and Pictures by Dante Gabriel Rossetti' (R. H. Russell). The form chosen for this revived work of Rossetti's youth is quarto, and the get-up is in all respects elegant, and worthy of the second half-century of vogue now enjoyed by the translation. The plates are sixteen in number, with Giotto's portrait of Dante in color as frontispiece. There is no list of them, strange to say. Rossetti's fourteen designs include, besides portraits of Miss Siddall, his well-known drawings of "The Salutation of Beatrice in Florence," "Beatrice Denying her Salutation to Dante at a Wedding Feast" (least successfully reproduced), "Dante's Dream," "My lady looks so gentle and so pure," "Beata Beatrix," "I perceived that some were standing beside me," "Dante and Beatrice in Paradise," and (ranking with the last-mentioned as among the finest compositions), "Her ladies with a veil were covering her." Mr. Fitzroy Carrington and W. M. Rossetti supply introductions containing the most needful information about the version and the illustrations. Meritorious as are both these, they are still but an introduction to Dante. There is a veil between him and his gifted translator.

The vague title 'Poems' is again employed for the concluding volume of the little Siddal edition of D. G. Rossetti's verse, which has been "introduced" by his brother William. A good deal of the contents is fragmentary, but "The Bride's Prelude" fills more than half the book. Poems in Italian, French, and Latin, with or without English equivalents, bring up the rear. They are perhaps the most interesting and characteristic of all these pieces.

The late Grant Allen was a guide-book maker, not infallible, but stimulating, because of his independence. His 'Florence' has just been brought out anew in two dainty volumes by L. C. Page & Co., Boston, with numerous photographic illustrations, and is to be commended if only as inspiring that love for the city in which the author said he yielded to no other. The riddle of Botticelli's "Spring" Mr. Allen solved in his own fashion, though it is now hardly a matter of dispute, and the solution does not lie his way. But in this, as in other instances, he does not seek to impose his own judgment.

We note a popular edition of Mr. Frederic Lawrence Knowles's 'Golden Treasury of American Lyrics' (Boston: L. C. Page & Co.), a very pretty book, and unhackneyed in the more recent portion.

The illustrations are the excuse for the form and dress now given to J. A. Mitchell's clever story, 'Amos Judd,' by Messrs. Scribner, and to Anthony Hope's 'Dolly Dialogues,' by R. H. Russell. Mr. A. I. Keller's designs in color for the former are as unconventional as the fiction of *Life's* editor, and possess not a little merit. Even where they fall short, they do not cheapen the typographic effect. Mr. H. C. Christy serves Mr. Hope in black and white, in Gibson's manner, but with a title of his own to distinction, especially in his groupings. The book is showy and truly handsome.

We do not feel sure that Mark Twain's first doubt about the propriety of publishing 'English as She Is Taught,' just reissued by the Century Co., was not justified. In humorous examples of the sort here collected from the mouths or pens of schoolchildren by Caroline B. Le Row, a very little goes a great way, since a protracted broad grin is tiresome. Moreover, we lack here the witty thread which gives at once structure and diversity to Max O'Rell's 'John Bull, Jr.' And still the discriminating can derive much amusement as well as some profit from the world in which a weeping-birch is "the kind of stick that makes you weep," and Longfellow's "Psalm of Life" becomes "Do not tell me that life is a dream, because when I sleep things will not be like I think they are."

The fourth volume of 'Lamb's Biographical Dictionary of the United States' (Boston: James H. Lamb Co.) pursues its con-

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scientious but undistinguished way from Hench to Leaming. This does not look as if the rest of the alphabet could be covered in two more volumes, according to the original plan. The subjects are brought pretty well down to date, and (as before) the treatment of stars of the minor magnitudes shows a democratic tendency towards "levelling up" or equalization. There seems to be even less attempt at criticism or characterization than in the earlier volumes: the uninstructed reader may infer, from the length of the notices bestowed on them, that Thomas A. Hendricks was a prominent statesman, and that Mr. Howells is an important author, but as to the quality of statesmanship or authorship he is left in the dark. Are not the facts—parentage, dates, places held, titles of publications, etc.—sufficient, and safe?

Mr. E. T. Cook's recent volume in the Country-Life Library (Charles Scribner's Sons), dealing with 'Gardening for Beginners,' contains much valuable information (witness its five hundred fairly closely printed pages), but in such an ill-arranged order as to bury much of it. Many beginners, too, will be discouraged by the assumption that they have glass houses and the full paraphernalia of the professional gardener at their command. The long array of horticultural varieties discussed may also give a real beginner pause. The chapter dealing with the vegetable garden is perhaps the best part of the book, because most concise.

Mr. F. Schuyler Mathews has prepared an edition of his 'Familiar Trees and their Leaves' (Appletons), with a number of colored plates illustrating about a dozen of the most familiar kinds. The book does not differ essentially from the first edition in other respects. As regards the success of the reproductions of water-colors by the artist and author, it is beyond doubt unqualified, as far as the beauty of the resulting plates is concerned. Some, however, present the trees, as one usually sees them, better than others. Those of the balsam, spruce, and juniper are especially good.

It is the fashion among amateurs to write "Nature Books," and it is perhaps equally the fashion among scientific men to decry them. 'Flowers and Ferns in their Haunts,' by Mabel Osgood Wright (Macmillan), is a fairly representative book of its class. Mrs. Wright is well known, and her nature books are already in the hands of many. Her new volume has its inaccuracies, but it invites us out of doors, and that is saying much for it. A contribution to the sanity of the world is perhaps as great a boon as a contribution to its science.

The fifth volume of Mr. C. P. Lucas's 'Historical Geography of the British Colonies' (H. Frowde) is devoted to Canada, and will contain two parts. The first of these, which is already published, covers the period of the French régime. It is a book of 364 pages, well furnished with maps and lucidly arranged. One particularly remarks that the presence of a geographical motive has not led to baldness, as in the case of Freeman's 'Historical Geography of Europe.' An easy flow of narrative and a fondness for general statement conceal the technical character of the study; anecdotes are frequent, and citations from Horace Walpole show that it is not impossible to illustrate the progress of geography by the letters of a gossip. Mr. Lucas has sought his information in good sources, and where, as is usually the case, he has followed modern writers, his guides are the best. The chief merits of the work are an admirable selection of subjects, a broad-minded regard for the essential points, and directness of statement. When it comes to detail, some small fault-finding might arise from mistakes of fact and the misspelling of proper names; but these will detract hardly any from the usefulness of a symmetrical and well-written work.

It is not probable that the present Sultan of the Ottoman Turks is exactly a person of high ethical ideals; appearances, at least, are against that. But that the book of "Georges Dorys," of which so much has lately been heard, and which has now been Englished ('Private Life of the Sultan of Turkey,' D. Appleton & Co.), is anything else than a very miscellaneous up-gathering of Constantinople gossip, is still less probable. It may all be true, and none of it need be true. What goes on within the Yildiz palace can be known to few, and still fewer can have had opportunity to read the character of the Sultan himself. Of Europeans, Professor Vámbéry could, if he chose, tell the most.

To the series of volumes prepared by various professors of Yale University to exemplify the character of the studies in which the University teachers are engaged, under the title of Yale Bicentennial Publications, Prof. C. E. Beecher has added one designated 'Studies in Evolution,' composed mainly of reprints of occasional papers, selected from the publications of the Laboratory of Invertebrate Palæontology at the Peabody Museum. Most of these papers appeared in the *American Journal of Science*, the *American Naturalist*, the Transactions of the Connecticut Academy, and the Memoirs of the New York State Museum, between 1889 and 1899; and are reprinted with only such minor changes as were necessary to bring the nomenclature up to date. Several of them, notably those on the development of Trilobites and Brachiopods, were regarded by specialists as of prime interest and importance at the time of their appearance. It was worth while to gather them together in a form convenient for ready reference, as they constitute a by no means unimportant chapter in the Evolutionary literature produced by American students. The volume comprises 638 pages and 34 plates, and is issued by the Scribners in a good, legible typography, with a full index and tasteful binding.

Genealogists and students of family histories will find their profit in Mrs. Jane Baldwin's 'Maryland Calendar of Wills,' Vol. I. (Baltimore: W. J. C. Dulany Co.), which consists of careful abstracts of all the wills recorded during the first fifty years of the province, including all names of persons and places mentioned. As descendants of old Maryland families are scattered through all the States, this book has more than merely local interest. It is well arranged and fully indexed.

Bennett's 'Odes and Epodes of Horace,' recently noticed by us, is followed by an edition of the 'Satires and Epistles,' prepared by Prof. John C. Rolfe of the University of Michigan (Boston: Allyn & Bacon). The work is generally well done, but one finds a point here and there in which "humana parum cavit natura," such as the quotation of "peream male si non optimus erat" as an example of "the indicative used for vividness in the apodosis of conditions contrary to fact." Under pressure of space limitations, the notes grow very brief towards the end, quite unfortunately for the literary epistles of the second book, the full elucidation of which is of greater importance to the average undergraduate than that of the Satires.

Mr. R. Van Bergen's story of 'A Boy of Old Japan' comes to us from Lee & Shepard, Boston, in holiday dress of (Chinese) yellow, with very fine colored heliotype pictures. It tells, with ample knowledge and fluency, of the rejuvenation of a country which a generation or two ago was considered a rather old hermit. The book, we imagine, will interest the elders more than the young folks, for it is stiff, with very little play of imagination, formally historical, and the vocabulary is that of an adult. It is unnecessarily full of Japanese names and of descriptions of things in the style of the encyclopædia, rather than of a story-teller who sees things from the inside. Nevertheless, in tracing the life of a boy born since 1858, it is a clear and correct account of the contact of natives and foreigners, and of the fall and decay of feudalism before the onset of Occidentalism.

It is pleasant to greet once more Bayard Taylor's 'Boys of Other Countries,' which is still much above the ordinary child's book in interest and in style. A chapter on "Studies in Animal Nature" has been appended, and enhances the value of the little book. Mr. Taylor tells here of a friend of his who, in the great Chicago fire, had decided on giving preference to the old family Bible over the parrot (being able to save but one), when the bird's "Good Lord, deliver us" tipped the scale in his favor. Messrs. Putnam are the publishers.

'Kids of Many Colors,' by Grace Duffie Boylan and Ike Morgan (Chicago: Jamieson Higgins Co.), is unusually good jingle for young folks, and much of the illustration can be praised. With quite enough of fantasy and eccentricity in decoration, the pictures convey correct and humorous ideas of the small folk of many countries.

Dr. A. B. Meyer, the Director of the Zoölogical and Anthropological-Ethnographical Museum at Dresden, was, in 1899, sent by the Saxon Government to this country to inspect museums and other scientific institutions, with a special view to the most recent fireproof constructions. He consequently spent the greater part of the months from August to October (inclusive) of that year in visiting the most important institutions of New York (Brooklyn), Albany, Buffalo, Chicago, Washington, Philadelphia, and Boston (Cambridge). The first two parts of his illustrated official report: 'Die Museen des Ostens der Vereinigten Staaten von Nord Amerika' (Berlin: R. Friedländer & Sohn), covering the cities in the State of New York and Chicago, now lie before us. In the nature of the case, the American expert or specialist will find in the Report but little that is new or of especial value to him, but no reader can fail to share the writer's unstinted admiration for the great things that have been accomplished in this coun-

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try in the way of buildings and equipments for scientific purposes. Occasional criticisms seem fair and to the point. To most German readers the greater part of Dr. Meyer's account of what he saw and learned—including a description of the buildings and outfit, as well as a brief history, of Columbia University and of the University of Chicago—will be a revelation; and many technical details will no doubt prove of practical value to German architects. The unbiassed and generous spirit in which Dr. Meyer writes about persons and things American deserves recognition. "There are no more obliging and amiable people," he concludes his preface, "than the American scholars (*die gelehrten Bürger der Union*), and I hope they will see in my Report only a tribute of admiration and gratitude."

In a recent study of the Coast Redwood (Proceedings of the California Academy of Sciences), Prof. George J. Peirce of Leland Stanford Jr. University disagrees with the view of Mr. Gannett, who attributes to climatic conditions the failure of this valuable tree to reoccupy territory cleared by the lumbermen. Dr. Peirce finds that the tree tends to reproduction by means of suckers from the underground parts, and he states that if the stumps are properly treated by the lumbermen, they will send up young stems after the trees have been felled. It appears that, before felling a tree, it is customary to clear away from its base all rubbish and undergrowth by setting fire to the brush. Thus the bark of the tree is killed, and the ground about the stump heated to such a degree as to kill those tissues of the subterranean parts which produce the suckers. Dr. Peirce points out that the remedy lies in not thus destroying the parts from which the new growth is to spring. He believes that, with this change in the method of the lumbermen, the redwood forests may renew themselves.

The Bishop Museum of Honolulu has issued as part iii. of its first volume of Memoirs a 'Key to the Birds of the Hawaiian Group,' by Mr. William Alanson Bryan, the curator of ornithology. This occupies seventy-six pages of text, with fifteen quarto half-tone plates taken from specimens in the Museum. Some of these are rather disreputable-looking, and the person ignorant of ornithology will be apt to wonder at their selection, until he discovers that most of them are priceless relics of species no longer known in the living state, of which this museum is the fortunate possessor. The paper is purely technical, but seems well adapted to its purpose, and will be welcomed by students of ornithology.

A peculiar difficulty to which the English are always liable in ruling India arises from the misunderstanding of Government intentions by the people. The recent order directing an ethnographical survey of the peninsula has already aroused strong opposition, on the ground that classification of castes is likely to be looked on as a judicial or official decision of precedence in rank. One Indian paper has warned Mr. Risley, the officer in charge of the survey, that he is "treading on forbidden ground." Another says that he is "playing with fire."

In "Set No. 3" of Mr. Louis Rhead's trout etchings, the different plates show three scenes in the capture of one of these fish. The first represents the trout rising to an apparently natural may-fly. In the second he is hooked and turning downward in a whirlpool of his own making, and in the third is being dragged ashore near the surface of the water. Whether or not they are supposed to indicate different stages of trouble for one individual is uncertain, but they in some way fail to give the idea of live and active trout. Trout rising to a fly or after being hooked *may* look as these do, but it is questionable, because they always appear full of strength and energy.

Apropos of our recent article on "A German Dreyfus Case," a correspondent informs us that the *Kölnische Volks-Zeitung* was no exception to the rule that the German press condemned the sentence of Marten. The contrary sentiment quoted by us, torn from its connection, was ironical in its original setting. We never saw the article at first hand, and were misled with the English press.

—By a very acceptable innovation the *American Historical Review* for October opens with a charming excursus on "The Age of Homer," by Goldwin Smith. "There are, no doubt," he says, "*nisi prius* objections to the common authorship [of Iliad and Odyssey]. But poetry is not judiciable in the court of *nisi prius*. It is passing strange, no doubt, that, after a ten-years' siege, Priam should be asking Helen to point out to him the chiefs of the besieging army. But it is not Priam, it is the reader or hearer of the bard, who wants the information. It is passing strange that, in Sophocles, Oedipus should have sat so long on his throne without seeking to know what had become of his predecessor. It is passing strange that, in 'Paradise Lost,' Omnipotence, having shut up Satan in hell, should fail to keep him there, and that Omniscience should be ignorant of his flight." Deserving of mention and of reading, also, are Prof. C. W. Colby's summary view of the Jesuit Relations, apropos of Mr. Thwaites's all but finished monumental edition, and Prof. A. B. Hart's lucid exposition of the transformation of the so-called Monroe Doctrine (*scilicet* J. Q. Adams Doctrine), its neglect by Seward as a means of thrusting the French out of Mexico, and its *coup de grâce* at the hands of the late Administration. Mr. Hart insists on the other side of the original Doctrine, "our policy . . . not to interfere in the internal concerns of any of its [Europe's] Powers"—a sufficient answer to Kossuth's appeal, by the way; but fallaciously supposes this to have been overridden by events." For good or evil, the United States has taken upon itself *a share in the world's affairs*, and cannot abdicate its responsibilities"; "the eventual *participation of America in the world's affairs* was as inevitable as the flow of lava down the slope of a volcano." But it is one thing to be able to refrain from republican propagandism in the Old World, and quite another to escape friction and occasional collision from sheer contact with other Powers. Mr. Hart rightly says that there really was no complete separation of Eastern and Western hemispheres in 1823; the points of contact have since simply multiplied. But there is no reason whatever why the American attitude of non-interference should have changed a particle. Mr. Hart still sees a "strategic point" won in Hawaii, but he is going to draw the line at "any further annexation of Latin-American territory." Whatever may be true of the Philippines, "neither the Monroe Doctrine nor any other common-sense doctrine delivers our neighbors over to us for spoliation."

—Ornithologists will be interested in the issue of the first number of the "Bulletin of the Bird Club of Princeton University." It contains a list of the officers and members of the club, and an article entitled "The Birds of Princeton, New Jersey, and Vicinity," by the President, Mr. William Arthur Babson. The club is fortunate in having for its editor the well-known ornithologist, Mr. W. E. D. Scott. The opening paper is, as might be expected, a local list of the birds about Princeton. It has been compiled from records made by the writer and other members of the club, and by Dr. C. C. Abbott. After lists of breeding birds, winter visitors, permanent residents, and others, there follows an annotated list of 230 species, which is, on the whole, highly creditable. Several minor details, however, may be open to question. The horned lark referred to is perhaps a subspecies, the prairie horned lark; and the loggerhead shrike should probably be listed as the migrant shrike. Some ornithologists will be skeptical about the record of the Mississippi kite, and few will approve of the entry of the red-naped sapsucker, while none can sanction the scientific name given for the ring-necked pheasant. The list is large, and will be appreciated by local ornithologists and by students of bird migration and distribution. It would have been more valuable, however, if what we may call the biogeography of the region had been treated as comprehensively as the importance of the subject demands.

—Miss M. Ethel Jameson (Detroit, Mich., No. 117 Selden Avenue) has printed privately, at the Riverside Press, Cambridge, 'A Bibliographical Contribution to the Study of John Ruskin,' being a thesis lately presented to the department of Library Science at the University of Chicago. It is pleasant to deal genially with the writers of academic theses; furthermore, the labors of bibliography are so arduous and its extrinsic rewards so inconsiderable that judgment upon it is justly biassed toward approbation; still, it is a duty to future laborers in this field to say that the present volume is scarcely a model of what such work should be. There is a prelude of forty pages of "Significant Facts in the Life of John Ruskin." These facts, which are collected from the usual sources, are interesting enough, but imperfectly arranged and only occasionally "significant." There are a hundred pages of bibliography, comprising lists of the British and foreign editions of Ruskin's publications, together with bibliographies of books and magazine articles about him, and even of works containing quotations from his writings. This part of the work is marred by various slight inaccuracies of citation, some redundancies, not a few omissions (as in the writings of W. J. Stillman), and occasional misprints. There is an index, reasonably complete, but rather whimsical in grouping. Notwithstanding these defects, the work is, as a whole, painstaking and conscientious. It is likely to prove very serviceable to the more thoroughgoing students of the "crotcheteer with a tongue of gold." Only, it seems to us to indicate that in "literary science," as in the somewhat analogous study of pedagogy, there may be danger in unduly exalting

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"method," and in disassociating the form of knowledge and its substantial body.

—Large type and thick paper have made A. H. Beavan's 'Imperial London' (London: Dent & Co.; New York: Dutton & Co.) too bulky to be a tourist's manual, but the purposes it will serve are mainly those of a guide-book. To American readers it will probably be of chief value for its excursuses. For example, the description of the Law Courts is supplemented by an account of the work and status of English solicitors. In this way the reader obtains not only particulars of London buildings, but a clearer insight than the average guide-book will give him into London life. Mr. Beavan's volume deals in turn with all its phases—social, official, ecclesiastical, legal, commercial, literary, theatrical, and even gastronomic. Here and there one comes across curious facts which are not generally known, as that of recent years the demand for copper coins has largely increased, owing to the introduction of penny-in-the-slot machines, and that every night the heads and hands of Mme. Tussaud's wax-works are unscrewed from their bodies. On the whole, the book may be commended as accurate, though the author is guilty of a few strange omissions and mistakes. It is surprising, for instance, that his account of Westminster Abbey, though running to eleven pages, contains no mention of the Jerusalem Chamber. His scholastic section is especially weak. If King's College School deserves a paragraph, certainly University College School should not have been overlooked; and it is odd to find that St. Paul's School, which, under Mr. Walker, has obtained a foremost place for scholarship, is known to Mr. Beavan for its athletic successes only. "Sir George Mivart" (p. 381) should be "St. George Mivart"; "W. R. Chambers" (p. 399) should be "W. & R. Chambers"; and "W. & H. Smith" (p. 425) should be "W. H. Smith & Son." Apparently the death of Queen Victoria occurred when part of the book was already in type, for her successor appears sometimes as King Edward VII. and sometimes as the Prince of Wales. In the account of the War Office occurs the odd statement that, "with the Boer war fresh in our memory, it is pathetic to recall" the lobby where lists of casualties were published. A memory of this kind should attract the attention of psychologists.

—In all parts of Germany the protests of prominent publicists, boards of trade, and political and commercial associations against the tariff bill framed by the Prussian Agrarians are growing more frequent and more vigorous every day. At a general convention of the Verein für Sozialpolitik recently held in Munich this subject was thoroughly discussed by many eminent political economists, of whom the great majority condemned any increase of duties on agricultural products. The question of reciprocity treaties with other nations was also debated, and the absolute necessity of such commercial arrangements unanimously maintained. To what extremes of selfishness the Agrarian policy logically leads is evident from the argument used in favor of it by one of its most zealous advocates, Adolf Wagner, who admits that it will increase the cost and diminish the quality of food, but declares this result to be desirable in order to check the impending evil of over-population. Prof. Dr. Lotz of Munich treated, among other topics, the burning question of the American balance of trade. He admits that the present enormous excess of American exports over imports is a somewhat startling phenomenon, worthy of careful attention, but not necessarily a source of peril to the mercantile and industrial interests of Europe. In estimating this balance, he thinks some important factors have been omitted. Thus, the money expended by Americans travelling or residing in Europe is far greater than that expended by Europeans in America, and amounts to an average of nearly $100,000,000 annually. This sum should be added to the European trade balance, since the products consumed by foreigners are virtually exported in their stomachs, which is the cheapest and most convenient form, inasmuch as it saves the exporter the cost of freight and other expenses. The same principle applies to articles of clothing and personal adornment. Prof. Lotz regards the present surplus of exports over imports in the United States as a temporary phenomenon, and thinks a complete change will take place when North America ceases to be a debtor country and becomes a creditor country, a process of transformation which has already begun. He is strongly opposed to tariff wars, and firmly convinced that a European customs union against America is out of the question. The only rational policy for Germany under the circumstances is that of "friendly reciprocity." The adoption of this principle by the Munich convention without a dissenting voice was a bitter disappointment to the Agrarians.

THE HARRIMAN EXPEDITION.

Alaska: Narrative, Glaciers, Natives (in vol. i.). By John Burroughs, John Muir, and George Bird Grinnell. History, Geography, Resources (in vol. ii., continuously paged). By William H. Dall, Charles Keeler, Henry Gannett, B. E. Fernow, W. H. Brewer, C. Hart Merriam, G. B. Grinnell, and M. L. Washburn. Doubleday, Page & Co. 1901. Imp. 8vo, with 39 colored plates, 85 photogravures, 5 maps, and 240 illustrations in the text.

Early in 1899, Mr. E. H. Harriman planned a summer cruise which should take him out of reach of the demands of business, and afford rest, recreation, and variety for his family and a few friends. The large steamer *George W. Elder* was chartered and fitted out. Her tonnage and the facilities necessary for the safety and comfort of the party were disproportionately large, and it was decided to include, if practicable, some guests who, while adding to the interest and pleasure of the expedition, would gather useful information and distribute it for the benefit of others. The aid and advice of Dr. C. Hart Merriam were secured, and the result of several conferences of those interested was that plans were matured by which some twenty-five men of science, representing almost every section of the country and department of natural history, were invited to participate.

The cruise, which originally contemplated a voyage to Kadiak, in the hope of securing specimens of the enormous brown bear of that island, was extended so as to include Unalashka, the fur-seal islands, and even the continent on each side of Bering Strait. Every practicable aid to scientific research was furnished, including canoes, camping outfits, two large naphtha launches, and a convenient library of works on the natural history and exploration of the region. The expenses of every sort were defrayed by Mr. Harriman. Besides the scientists and their assistants, the guests included several well-known artists, two physicians, one of whom, Dr. Lewis R. Morris, rendered important services in the organization of the expedition; and a chaplain, the Rev. Dr. Nelson of New York. The Eastern members left New York by a special train on the 23d of May, the others joining en route or at Portland, Ore., or Seattle, a week later. In crossing the continent, side trips were made to Shoshone Falls, Boisé City, and Lewiston, Idaho, where the party was met by a special steamer and taken by way of the Snake River cañon to its junction with the Columbia. Here the train was in waiting.

The *Elder* sailed from Seattle on May 30, and was absent just two months. The route taken was that known as the Inland Passage from Puget Sound to Juneau, Skaguay (where a complimentary excursion on the Yukon and White Pass Railway took the party to the summit of the Coast Range at the Canadian boundary); Glacier Bay, and Sitka. From Sitka the vessel skirted the continental coast to Yakutat Bay, Prince William Sound, Cook's Inlet, Kadiak, and Unalashka. Thence the expedition proceeded northward through Bering Sea to the Pribiloff Islands, the coast of Siberia at Plover Bay, Port Clarence, Alaska; St. Lawrence and St. Matthew Islands; and, returning, took much the same general course with minor deviations. Frequent landings were made, which the geologists and biologists utilized to the fullest extent. Small boat parties made special trips of several days' duration, being picked up later by the ship. Extensive and important collections were made in all branches, including the largest collections of plants and insects ever brought from the region. In working up this material, the services of more than fifty specialists have been enlisted, and the knowledge of the fauna and flora of Alaska greatly increased. Mr. Harriman, in his preface, says:

"It is pleasant to recall the spirit of harmony and good-fellowship which prevailed throughout the voyage, and to remember that, whether in the field of research or in the line of service, all showed a willingness to cheerfully carry out the duties which fell to their lot. Through this spirit, manifested from the very beginning, every member of the party contributed to the success of the expedition."

Dr. Merriam, in the editorial introduction, observes:

"In a voyage of this character, where many and diverse interests are involved, where numerous stops at widely separated localities must be made, and where great distances must be covered in the shortest practicable time, success or failure depends on the capacity of the leader, the efficiency of the organization, the perfection of the equipment, and the enthusiasm, training, and coöperative spirit of the individual members. That so much was accomplished is sufficient evidence as to the way these conditions were fulfilled. . . . The ship had no business other than to convey the party whithersoever it desired to go. Her route was intrusted to a committee comprising the heads of the various departments of research; so that from day to day and hour

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to hour her movements were made to subserve the interests of the scientific work."

Many of the members of the expedition are also members of the Washington Academy of Sciences, and in the publication of the scientific results this society has energetically coöperated, having already published twenty-two special papers based on collections made by the expedition, while others are in preparation. The present publication, in two volumes, comprises the narrative of the expedition and a few papers on subjects believed to be of general interest.

We have dwelt at some length on the organization and methods of the expedition for the reason that it may be fairly regarded as unique in many features, and worthy of emulation by those whose time and means may be available, and who may be desirous of combining recreation with the attainment of results of permanent value to the world.

The narrative of the voyage is from the facile pen of John Burroughs, which is a sufficient guarantee of literary merit. It records the impressions made by the varied scenes surveyed, rather than unimportant details of the work engaged in. Happy is the recorder who knows what to leave out. John Muir rhapsodizes over the glaciers in a manner which recalls Emerson's description of the Yosemite, as being the only thing in California "which came up to the brag." Those who have seen these glaciers will be inclined to believe that Muir's enthusiasm is none too great. Mr. Grinnell, no stranger to "natives," discourses in a pleasant and popular vein of those encountered by the party; and we are happy to testify that the hideous nickname "Amerind" does not appear once in the book. In the second volume, Dall gives a synopsis of the history of discovery and exploration in Alaska, from 1711 to the date of the American purchase. This is illustrated by portraits of Baranoff, Veniaminoff, Wrangell, and Kennicott, prominent in Alaskan history, and reproduced from extremely rare originals. Charles Keeler discourses charmingly of days among Alaskan birds, and Professor Fernow provides a valuable account and estimation of the forests and timber resources of Alaska. Mr. Gannett summarizes the geographical features of the Territory, to a knowledge of which the expedition notably contributed, especially in the discovery of the magnificent glacial fiord named after Mr. Harriman, which the *Elder* was the first vessel to enter, and in the elaborate investigation of the features of Russell Fiord beyond Disenchantment Bay. Professor Brewer contributes a chapter on the atmosphere of Alaska, swept almost free of dust and germs by the prevalent rains, resulting in notable peculiarities of transparency and cloud colors. A very interesting chapter follows, by the editor, on the history of the growth and decay of the Bogosloff volcanic islands off the coast of Unalashka. These are among the most modern and variant of the few volcanic islets which have risen from the sea in historic times, and their phases are here profusely illustrated. A much-needed warning anent the conditions of the salmon industry of Alaska is sounded by Mr. Grinnell. The farcical non-enforcement of law in regard to the barricading of streams and the destruction of the fish every day in the week and every hour in the day can have only one result, and that will not be long deferred. But "Heaven is high and the Czar is distant," as the suffering Aleuts learned a century ago.

The volume is concluded by a very full index. The maps, prepared under Mr. Gannett's supervision, are excellent, and there will hardly be more than one opinion as to the merits of the illustrations. The colored plates reproduce sketches by Gifford, Fuertes, and Dellenbaugh; and the photographs from which nearly all the photogravures are derived were taken by the photographers on the expedition. Nothing approaching them in range, variety, and beauty has ever been obtained in the region before. It is hardly too much to say that these volumes form the most beautifully illustrated work of travel which has ever been issued on this side of the Atlantic. Dr. Merriam, the editor, has given his whole time, outside of official duties, for two years to the task; and its perfection is very largely due to his indefatigable energy and the unstinted generosity of Mr. Harriman. All in all, it is a work of which America may justly be proud, and the production of which, from its initiation to its conclusion, is due to factors which are almost peculiar to this country and time.

MORE ASTRONOMICAL WORKS.

The Eclipse Cyclone and the Diurnal Cyclones. Investigations of the Blue Hill Meteorological Observatory, under the direction of A. Lawrence Rotch. By H. Helm Clayton. Cambridge. 1901.

Annals of the Lowell Observatory. Percival Lowell, Director. Vol. II. 1900.

Publications of the Astronomical Laboratory at Groningen. By Prof. J. C. Kapteyn, Director. Nos. 2 and 3, by Dr. W. De Sitter. Groningen, 1900.

The Princeton University Bulletin: Eclipse Expedition Number. By Prof. C. A. Young, Princeton, 1900.

Annuaire pour l'an 1901, publié par le Bureau des Longitudes. Paris: Gauthier-Villars.

Observations of total eclipses of the sun have many points of contact for both astronomer and meteorologist. The former unhesitatingly crosses oceans and continents to observe them, because he hopes ultimately to find, in a complete knowledge of the solar corona, a stepping-stone, at least, to that final theory of the sun's radiant energy which is basic in meteorology. But the latter has usually found little of useful import to observe in a solar eclipse; the well-marked changes in temperature and humidity of the atmosphere had long been watched during so many eclipses, and with results practically always the same, that there had seemed nothing further to learn. Meteorologists, too, had settled down comfortably to the certainty that the barometer was no longer worth carrying into the lunar shadow, as repeated attempts had shown that the variations of air-pressure were so feeble as to be masked by other conditions whose effect could only in part be excerpted. Mr. Clayton, in the able discussion above cited, has conclusively shown the fallacy of this position by collating a mass of barometric observations in regions of the globe traversed by the last eclipse's path, both total and penumbral. A well-marked cyclonic effect is obvious, and has given rise to the new term "eclipse cyclone," confirming admirably Ferrel's theory of the cold-air cyclone, and indicating that marvellous sensitiveness of our atmosphere which allows it to respond almost at once to cosmic influences.

The cause is unique: by the interposition of the moon the sun's direct heat is for a few hours withdrawn from a region of the earth several thousand miles in extent. This is progressive, the moon's shadow sweeping athwart our planet at an hourly velocity exceeding two thousand miles. Its speed relatively to the surface is, of course, much reduced by the earth's axial turning—by about one-half, in fact, if the eclipse track chances to lie alongside the equator. Mr. Clayton's research exhibits the remarkable rapidity of development and dissipation of cyclonic phenomena in the atmosphere, and the further important fact that cyclones do not necessarily drift with the atmosphere, but travel along with their originating cause—in this case the swiftly moving lunar shadow, from the region within which the sun's heat is temporarily screened.

"The eclipse may be compared," he says, "to an experiment by Nature, in which all the causes that complicate the origin of the ordinary cyclone are eliminated, except that of a direct and rapid change of temperature. The results derived from the observations, by eliminating the influence of other known phenomena, show quantitatively the effects of a given fall of temperature near the earth's surface in a given time. They show that a fall of temperature is capable of developing a cold-air cyclone in an astonishingly short time, with all the peculiar circulation of winds and distribution of pressure that constitute such a cyclone."

This discovery has suggested to Mr. Clayton the further theory that the diurnal fall of temperature, due to the occurrence of night, must also produce, or tend to produce, a cold-air cyclone. It is this conception which he develops into a new explanation of the cause of the long-recognized daily period in atmospheric pressure. Buchan, Angot, Schmidt, Hann, and others have accumulated a large mass of information concerning diurnal changes in pressure, and this is critically compared with Mr. Clayton's new theory that the double diurnal period in pressure is due to two diurnal cyclones, the one developed by the cold of night, and the other by the heat of day. It is a theory based on well-known physical laws, and explains also why the warm-air cyclone is strongly marked over continents and on clear days, causing the afternoon fall in the barometer; likewise why the early-morning period of least pressure over continents does not develop as fully as over oceans, where there is but slight retardation of the air movements on which the fall of the barometer in the cold-air cyclone depends. The investigation is further elucidated by four plates, very clearly engraved and printed.

In a fine volume of 523 pages, illuminated with 41 heliograph plates, Mr. Lowell, with the coöperation of his coadjutors, Professor Pickering and Mr. Douglass, has given to astronomers a very careful series of observations of Jupiter and his satellites made in the years 1894 and 1895, and of Mars in 1896 and 1897, in part at his observatory in Flagstaff, Arizona, and in part at Tacubaya, Mexico. Any one who will take the trouble to go through this mass of detail and compare the notes with the drawings to which they refer, cannot but be struck with the high value of the substantial contribution to practical astronomy

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that Mr. Lowell has effected, in prosecuting so zealously a search for regions of exceptional atmospheric steadiness from which to conduct his researches on the surface and physical condition of the planets. And until astronomers who now remain in doubt as to the existence of the things here recorded, have themselves had the opportunity of once observing for themselves under conditions essentially identical, so long will they continue skeptical.

That this ever mobile atmosphere of ours has much to do with the situation, no one can doubt who has ever experienced the immensely ameliorated conditions of vision that attend an almost quiescent state of the air. Then, if only for an instant, he obtains perhaps just a fleeting glimpse, but still enough to satisfy him that, with hours of such vision, there is simply no end to the detail that can be visualized on the planetary disks. But the one first good sight is always necessary — preceded, of course, by a willingness to see, which not all astronomers seem to be gifted with. The bearing of Mr. Lowell's search for fine skies is far-reaching, if the astronomy of the future is to be a progressive science. The Clarks and Brashear in our own country, Steinheil, Cooke, and the Henrys in Europe, have pushed the perfection of telescopes far in advance of the optical quality of the atmosphere through which they have to be used ordinarily; and the ablest of astronomers have employed these splendid instruments in making measures of a high degree of precision anciently unknown. A fair proposition it is, that if sites of the utmost and continuous steadiness of asmosphere could be found and occupied by a multitude of astronomers working under these ideal conditions, nowhere as yet attained, further and most significant advances could not fail to result. And this is true, not only of investigations clearly within the province of exact astronomy, but also in astrophysics, where precise measurement is more and more a necessity, particularly in spectroscopy.

But it is in quite a different direction that Mr. Lowell has been seeking. Still, he has found more than was expected at the outset. The work set forth in his first volume was done in the main with an 18-inch telescope, the largest of Mr. Brashear's construction, and now the property of the Flower Observatory of the University of Pennsylvania. In 1896 he acquired a 24-inch telescope, the last one actually made by Mr. Alvan G. Clark, a lens of exceptionally fine quality and performance. During the winter of 1896-97 this great instrument, with its unusually heavy mounting, was transferred to Tacubaya, a suburb of the City of Mexico; but as the atmospheric conditions were found to be disappointing, it was returned to Arizona, where it has remained in pretty constant use since May, 1897. Astronomers have already become in large part acquainted with the results of the investigations undertaken, through their earlier publication in *Popular Astronomy*, the *Astro-Physical Journal*, and elsewhere. Definite indications were reached of an atmosphere engulfing Jupiter between 2,000 and 3,000 miles in depth. The first, third, and fourth satellites of the planet are found to turn round once on their axes while circling once round the planet. The second half of the volume discusses the observations of Mars during the partly unfavorable opposition of 1896-97—unfavorable if the greater distance of the planet is considered, but favorable if research upon the planet's northern polar regions is regarded. The polar caps and their varying configurations are discussed, diameters and markings of the planets also, with lists of the canals and oases scrutinized at this opposition when most astronomers failed to perceive any markings. The discussion concludes with several chapters bearing upon the meteorological condition of the planet, and a double-plate map of the planet is annexed embodying all the detail made out at the opposition in question. Astronomers will be gratified to know that these investigations have been continued during the later oppositions of 1899 and 1901, when the planet's north pole has been tilted at nearly its extreme angle towards the earth; and, as the writers conclude, "Nothing could demonstrate better the wisdom of going far to secure a good atmosphere."

The advent of photography as the handmaid of astronomy has led to the foundation of astronomical observatories without telescopes—or with microscopes, rather—astronomical laboratories, as Prof. Kapteyn calls his. Here the photographic plates taken by astronomers at observatories in other parts of the world, notably by Sir David Gill at the Cape, have been carefully subjected to micrometric measurement, in which Professor Kapteyn may be said to have led the astronomical world in deriving those substantial and accurate numerical results which alone make the finished film of value. He has now added to his previously published catalogues of stellar positions a paper on the parallax of 248 stars which appear on a valuable series of plates taken in 1891-92 by Professor Donner of Helsingfors, whose work has been done with the utmost care and thoroughness. Not less critical is Professor Kapteyn's measurement of the plates and subsequent discussion. In accuracy the results compare very favorably with those secured by the more usual optical method, and Professor Kapteyn concludes his paper with an enthusiastic plan for a systematic determination of the parallaxes of all the stars down to the magnitude 8.5 or 9, which number about 200,000.

For the actual photography, he suggests telescopes of very great focal length, but few of which are as yet available for this work. The photographic labor is not in itself prohibitive. Professor Kapteyn estimates that it would not greatly exceed that requisite for the *carte du ciel* now approaching completion. The subsequent measures and reduction of the plates will demand an amount of labor not far from that expended upon the *carte du ciel* also. Clearly, then, it is not too sanguine an estimate that the distances of perhaps even a half million stars may be ascertained within the next quarter century, if reasonable Government coöperation can be counted on. Certainly the feasibility of Professor Kapteyn's plan, outlined in this important paper, is sufficiently set forth; and of the desirability of such a general "*Durchmusterung* for parallax" there can be no doubt, as progress in our knowledge of the distribution of the bodies 'throughout the stellar universe is already greatly handicapped by essential ignorance of the distances of all but a few.' Their motions athwart the line of sight, or proper motions, have long been regarded as fit subjects for research at the Government observatories, and Greenwich has within recent years added spectroscopic observations of their motion towards or from the earth. Obviously the stellar labyrinth is not to be threaded until the coöperation of the national observatories of the world includes the wholesale determination of stellar distances as well.

By the liberality of Mr. M. Taylor Pyne and of the executors of the estate of Mr. Charles E. Green, Professor Young was able to organize on a large scale an expedition, under the auspices of Princeton University, for observing the total eclipse of the sun in May, 1900. During the past two-thirds of a century Princeton has often sent out eclipse observers, four times in charge of the late Prof. Stephen Alexander—in 1834 to Georgia; in 1854 to Ogdensburg, N. Y., when a celestial happening was for the first time recorded by photography; in 1860 to Labrador, and in 1869 to Iowa. Professor Young, who went to Princeton from Dartmouth in 1877, followed up this work by observing the total eclipses of 1878 in Colorado and in 1887 in Russia. The increasing attention given by astronomers to these phenomena is well illustrated by the increasing elaborateness of preparation and the greater achievements of the more recent expeditions. The total eclipse of May 28, 1900, was the first visible in the Atlantic States since 1869, one which marked an epoch in American astronomical science, and Professor Young might almost be called the hero of that occasion, when he discovered the characteristic line of the coronal spectrum, and fixed its position with an accuracy which stood unassailed for nearly thirty years. English observers, however, and Professor Campbell of the Lick Observatory, during the Indian eclipse of 1898, took a series of spectrum photographs which showed conclusively that the accepted position of this important line must be in error, and it was to the correction of this that Professor Young in the main turned his attention. Most unfortunately it proved that the line in question was exceptionally faint, so that it failed of detection by all members of the party. The undoubted variability in brightness of this line, whatever its significance may be, is a fact of much importance, and must serve to place spectroscopists on their guard at future eclipses.

Professor Young had the efficient assistance of his colleagues, Professors Brackett, Libbey, Magie, and Reed. Their report is excellently illustrated by a series of plates showing the station at Wadesboro, North Carolina, the observers, their instruments, and the fine photographic results secured by them. The photographs of the corona were taken with Carbutt plates, and rank well beside the best secured in recent years. Professor Young had an interesting experience with positive photography at the last contact, and this leads him to make a novel and practical suggestion as to its utility in recording certain stars for parallax, of which photographic astronomers will do well to take note.

The useful *Annuaire* came promptly to hand early in the year, published under the superintendence of MM. Janssen, Cornu, and Loewy, the committee of the Bureau des Longitudes charged with its prepara-

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tion. The amount of up-to-date astronomical information within so narrow a compass is simply surprising, and places the *Annuaire* far in the lead of other annuals. M. Cornu has written a brief section explanatory of the spectra of the stars and nebulæ, and the lists of comets and small planets have been thoroughly revised. Aside from the *Annuaire's* primary value to the astronomer, it is of almost equal utility to the physicist and the man of affairs. There are compact tables of the currency, weights, and measures of France and other nations, together with a wise selection of geographical and statistical tables. Also there are population and mortality tables from which one may derive no very happy forecast for France's future. The chemical and physical tables are carefully collated. The number and excellence and interest of the supplementary *Notices Scientifiques* are rather unusual, and add greatly to the value of the *Annuaire* for 1901. M. Cornu contributes the first of these, on the electric transfer of energy, followed by M. Poincaré on the projected revision of the equatorial arc of meridian near Quito. It is to be expected that this work will now be undertaken under the general direction of the French Academy, and that the arc will be extended from 4.5 degrees to 6 degrees in length. M. Bassot adds a brief historical note on the metric system, and M. Janssen relates the work accomplished the past year at his observatory on the summit of Mont Blanc. M. Hansky of St. Petersburg ascended the mountain once in July and again in September, remaining on its summit nearly a week each time. His work was chiefly in determination of the constant of the sun's heat, but he observed also an occultation of Saturn by the moon under exceptional circumstances. Other notices deal chiefly with the subjects of the international conventions of the Exposition—M. Loewy on the Astronomical Conference, M. Bouquet de la Grye on the Geodetic Conference, and M. Janssen on the progress of aerial navigation. The *Annuaire* is copiously indexed and cross-referenced.

Beleaguered in Peking. By Robert. Coltman, jr., M.D. Philadelphia: F. A. Davis Co.

Ten years after his first experiences in China as a missionary physician, and the publication of a book on 'The Chinese,' in which he diagnosed the diseases of the Middle Kingdom and prophesied alien ownership and rule unless China's rulers awoke to their duty, Dr. Coltman issues his journal of the siege, and utters his opinions somewhat modified at points, but more vigorously, even, than before. His handsomely bound and printed work has many excellent illustrations, the especial value of the latter being that several are reproductions of the Imperial and Boxer military commanders and civil mandarins, including those who were beheaded for their pro-foreign opinions, or for favoring moderation. It is not all fancy that sees in these strongly differing faces a powerful contrast between Chinese civilization and Tartar savagery. It is a positive relief to see a book on China bound in green instead of gold or butter-color, though, along with the Chinese characters on the side, are the words in large letters "The Yellow Crime," and the sub-title is "The Boxer's War against the Foreigner."

Nevertheless, after reading this, as well as a score of other recent books on China by those supposed to know best about what they are writing, there seems to us a failure to make clear just what the recent disturbances in China were. We read their real significance not in "China against the World," nor "The Boxers' War against the Foreigner." Certainly such titles are far from exhausting the meaning of so much smoke and blood. From either a native and inner, or a distant and alien view, neither the Boxers nor the foreigners were so really important as the two parties in China, the progressive and the reactionary. Naturally, foreigners, having been attacked and their lives put in peril, are apt to magnify their view of the situation, and we who never felt a wound have no wish to jest at scars. None the less, several things must be recalled to mind. One is, that the greater and the better part of China, the populous central and southern regions and peoples, have approved neither of the Boxer fanatics nor of the Tartar reactionaries in the Government. Furthermore, it is more than probable that a majority of alien officers and soldiers, hastening to the rescue of the legations, never took in the real situation, nor did they see clearly what had happened even when they had arrived at Pekin, when they learned (that is, the few who took the care to learn) that about 30,000 progressive Chinese and followers of the Western religion had been slaughtered.

Every book that comes out on China from the pens of eye-witnesses like Dr. Coltman does but serve to make two or three things, that ought never to be forgotten, as clearly visible as the electric tower at Buffalo. One is the utter blindness of almost all the foreign representatives in Pekin, including especially the American and British representatives, as to the real situation. Dr. Coltman, indeed, makes it repeatedly so very plain that one almost feels that he has a personal feeling as well as judicial opinion on the subject, though possibly this suspicion is not well founded. Certainly he does "rub it in," as if the ointment of criticism were of no avail unless stalwartly applied. His book also makes it manifest that, until the bombardment and capture of the Taku forts, the nature of the uprising was that of a mob instigated and greatly aided, no doubt, by some of the Empress's trusted adherents in high office. In all probability, these might have been restrained by the moderate and pro-foreign men in high office, who lost their last chance of restraint while the alien-hating Tartar advisers of the Empress got what they hoped and waited for, as well as their fullest justification, when the forts were attacked and the foreign nations, except the United States, had thus declared war by overt hostilities. We repeat that all this is clear, notwithstanding the author's interpolated and rather vigorous comments on the Empress's edicts; as, for example (p. 227): "June 27.—Edict—From the foundation of this dynasty, foreigners in China have always been kindly treated. (A tremendous lie.)" Yet some one at Washington blundered, for, notwithstanding that the American naval commander, Admiral Kempff, refused to join in hostilities, or, in other words, preserved our unbroken traditions of formal peace with China, and gave the United States what has since been its sure basis for subsequent successful diplomacy, he was virtually censured by our Government by being ordered away from the scene of operations.

Dr. Coltman has learned wisdom in ten years, for this once missionary physician, vigorous in defence of the polity of his colleagues, declares (p. 37) his conclusion "that it has been a mistake of the Powers to insert in their treaties provisions making the preaching of Christianity a treaty right in spite of Chinese objection. Nearly all of the riots in China have come from attempts to force the Chinese officials to stamp deeds conveying property to missionaries, for residences or chapels." Standing thus, Dr. Coltman's statement is a gross exaggeration, if he includes other than Roman Catholic missionaries, who are directly backed by French diplomatics and military power. His opinions, however, are worthy of being pondered. In his view, as in our own, "the policy which has been pursued in forcing Christianity upon the Chinese . . . practically at the point of the sword, has given to such men as the instigators of the Boxers a powerful argument for the extermination alike of the foreigner and his converts."

Making no pretence to "literary effort," Dr. Coltman has given us one of the clearest, most forcible, direct, and unimpassioned accounts of the siege, with details and comments that are suggestive and valuable. Taken as a whole, it is, in so far, of greater value to the judicially minded historian than even Mr. Landor's bulky volumes. It is almost pitiful, then, to find on almost the closing page, after a reference to Yu Hsien, Governor of Shansi, who had the foreigners in his province murdered, the following sentence: "Is he to live? No, never! If there exists in America to-day one individual who counsels the return of the troops until the atoning blood of all the leaders and instigators of this awful crime has been poured out, may he be cursed for ever." In the next paragraph he demands that the Empress Dowager, two princes, and nine high officers "must each and all be brought to the block with as many of their followers as possible, before the blood of innocent American women will cease to cry from the ground for vengeance." Frankly, we must protest that this desire for so much blood-letting is scarcely consistent with what the Doctor declared (pp. 37, 38) to be the cause of the trouble. He outlines on the penultimate page thirteen things which ought not to be done or allowed, in one of which he calls for the abolition of Mantchu sovereignty. The preface was written September 10, 1900, when "all of the leaders of the movement are at large." Perhaps the Doctor has cooled somewhat since, but, naturally, we ask with him, concerning the future, "What?"

A History and Description of Roman Political Institutions. By Frank Frost Abbott. Boston: Ginn & Co. 1901.

Roman Public Life. By A. H. J. Greenidge. Macmillan. 1901.

In their treatment of the Republic, these two works follow a similar plan. Both begin with an account of the early political development, after which they describe in

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some detail the later Constitution. In the part devoted to the Imperial period, Abbott includes a narrative of the Cæsars, whereas Greenidge limits himself to a discussion of the Government. Abbott's simple, concise language adapts his book to the average capacity of the college student; Greenidge's fuller and more technical treatment is designed for the mature mind.

It would be a mistake to assume, as Abbott comes near doing, that the kind of matter contained in these books is all that is needed for an adequate appreciation of the genius of Rome. Roads and buildings, private and social life and morals also express her character; and if her art and literature are "hybrid products," a half of these products is nevertheless Roman. But though the special consideration of a particular aspect of Roman life cannot be profitably substituted for a liberal view of the whole, the separate treatment of political institutions has an undeniable value of its own.

It is regrettable that, in their presentation of the original kingship and of the early Republic, these writers have not taken a more scientific attitude toward the sources. To them the early books of Livy and Dionysius are "tradition" pure and simple, whereas, in fact, the greater part of these narratives is the deliberate invention of later ages. Such material cannot be accurately termed tradition. A slight acquaintance with Pais, whom both Abbott and Greenidge mention, ought to improve their critical faculty. It is a serious question, too, whether these authors have not committed a grave error in adopting the conventional theory of an original patrician state. This theory is a product of historical method in its crude beginnings, represented by Niebuhr, who, in attempting to substitute reason for authority, gave free rein to his constructive genius in the creation of artificial political systems and situations. Although most of the mistakes of this great man have been eliminated from historical science by the sharper critical methods of his successors, his favorite theory of a patrician *populus* still lingers between life and death. Originally it was supported by a few plausible citations from the sources, reinforced by a vast amount of *a priori* argument; but one by one the props have fallen, till it now stands without a single support. Mommsen admits not only that the theory of an original patrician *populus* was wholly unknown to the ancient writers, but also that this assumed patrician state has left no trace of itself either in the language or in the later institutions of Rome. In other words, this myth of the nineteenth century, elaborated at so great a cost of time and thought, explains absolutely nothing which we find in historical Rome.

The view we take of this subject will control our conception of the whole constitutional development to the passing of the Hortensian Law (287 B. C.). Those who accept the conventional theory imagine the plebeians struggling first for citizenship and then for "full" citizenship. Those, on the other hand, who hold the simple view presented by the sources and reinforced by analogies from every other state known to history, that, from the beginning, the patricians of Rome were merely the nobles and the plebeians the common citizens, will find the early political history a struggle of the plebeian masses chiefly for better economic conditions, and of their leaders for the right to hold offices.

Another fault which both authors share with the school of conventional Roman history to which they belong, is scarcely less important. The reader especially of Greenidge will receive the impression that early Roman life was a complex legal system planned by learned jurists on a preconceived theory of the state, and administered in detail with scientific precision. The origin of this artificial view is well known. The early Rome of conventional history is largely the invention of late Roman jurists, along whose lines of reconstruction modern scholars from Niebuhr to Mommsen, with some exceptions, have continued to build. The plain statement of their method is enough to prove its unscientific character. The student of early Rome who wishes to keep himself free from juristic misconceptions should study the primitive life of the Greeks, Germans, Celts, and other Indo-Europeans. Before coming to Rome, he should dwell for a time among the Samnites, Umbrians, Latins, and other Italians. Beginning his work with this preparatory discipline, he may assume for early Rome those common Aryan and Italian institutions, customs, and beliefs which, according to his judgment, have left an impression upon the later history of the state. Written from this point of view, a history of early Rome will become intelligible.

In view of these fundamental defects in the method and conception of history adopted by the two authors, minor faults may pass unnoticed. It would be more agreeable to speak of merits; but this is difficult, for neither writer offers anything essentially original, or shows marked character in any direction. Doubtless their chief excellence lies in the fact that they have given a fair amount of space to Imperial times. Till recently, the English reader lacked the opportunity to make himself acquainted with the modern conception of this period. The only historians whom he knew assumed that the emperors were all unlimited despots from first to last, and that consequently there was no development of the Imperial Constitution, if indeed such a thing as an Imperial Constitution existed. Bury, in his 'Student's Roman Empire,' was the first to present in English the views of recent German scholars on the subject; and now both Abbott and Greenidge have adopted these fresh ideas.

In the new light which comes from a more careful study of the sources, the Augustan Government was not an absolute monarchy, but a dyarchy—the joint rule of *Princeps* and Senate—in which each of the two governing powers limited the other both territorially and functionally. The development of the Constitution was a gradual drift towards absolute monarchy, a natural process occasionally interrupted by the tyranny of a Caligula or a Domitian. When, by the time of Diocletian, the influence of the Senate had become insignificant, the dyarchy ceased, the Prince had developed into a despot of the Oriental type. The only serious objection to this view of the Imperial Constitution is effectually met by Greenidge in a passage on page 398, which ends with these telling words: "To maintain the theory that a constitution which demands obedience from the wise is a palpable fiction because it cannot enforce obedience on the headstrong, is to wring a strange admission from political science."

An English Comment on Dante's Divina Commedia. By the Rev. H. F. Tozer, M.A., Honorary Fellow of Exeter College, Oxford, etc. Oxford: Clarendon Press: New York: H. Frowde. 1901. 8vo, pp. 628.

The number of contributions made by English scholars during recent years to the study of Dante and his writings is not only a proof of interest in the life and work of the poet, but also a striking indication of the rapid change in our educational systems by the large substitution of the discipline of the modern languages for that of the ancient—a change likely to have effects which will mark a wide difference between the intellectual culture of the nineteenth and the twentieth centuries. Perhaps even more remarkable than the number of these contributions is the excellence of many of them, and their value as aids to a better understanding of the poet. The most interesting and important of all the early comments on the 'Divine Comedy,' that of Benvenuto da Imola, was edited by Sir James Lacaita, and published in five noble volumes at the expense of the family of Lord Vernon, in 1887. Since then the Rev. Dr. Edward Moore, the acknowledged chief of living scholars of Dante, has published, in rapid succession, one masterly treatise after another, ranging over the fields of textual criticism, of historical illustration, of exegetical interpretation, and of the investigation of the sources by which Dante's mind was quickened, and from which he drew his extraordinary learning.

Of less originality and importance than Dr. Moore's work, but still of great value, are the six volumes of the Hon. William Warren Vernon's recently completed 'Readings on the Divine Comedy,' which comprise a complete translation and an ample exposition of the poem. The character of the author as it appears in his pages adds a grace to his abundant scholarship. Another work of the highest merit in its kind is Mr. Paget Toynbee's thorough and learned 'Dante Dictionary,' a work so serviceable as to be practically indispensable to the English student of Dante. Of a different order is Mr. Edmund Gardner's volume on 'Dante's Ten Heavens,' containing an interpretation of the "Paradiso" remarkable for its intelligence and insight; and this was followed last year by an interesting translation by the Rev. Mr. Wickstead of the same division of the poem, with admirable explanatory arguments to the cantos, and useful notes by the translator and Mr. H. Oelsner. It were easy to extend this list, but we will add to it only a reference to the important contributions to a better knowledge of Dante made in America during the same period, of which Dr. Fay's invaluable Concordance, Mr. Latham's translation of Dante's Letters, and Mr. T. W. Koch's extraordinary Catalogue of the Dante Collection at Cornell University (practically an almost complete Dante Bibliography), may be cited as examples.

Different in intent from any of these books, but in its kind not undeserving to rank with them, is Mr. Tozer's recently published 'English Comment on the Divina Commedia.' The excellent essay on the metre of the 'Divina Commedia' which Mr.

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Tozer contributed to Dr. Moore's 'Textual Criticism' more than ten years ago, showed him to be a thorough and minute student of the poem, and his 'Comment' is that of an accurate and intelligent scholar. It is practically a school commentary, like those on the ancient classics, intended for beginners, but not without use for advanced students, as giving the interpretation adopted by a competent scholar of disputed and difficult passages. It is intelligent, concise, and, with few exceptions, sufficient. Of course, in a poem which presents so many difficulties as the 'Divina Commedia' there are many passages concerning which there is likely to be difference of opinion among students of it, and Mr. Tozer cannot expect that his critics will always accept his interpretations; but if they are good scholars they will generally differ from him with hesitancy, always with respect.

The comment has no charm of literary allusion or citation, or in its own literary form. It will not quicken the student's poetic imagination, or inspire him with a sense of the beauty of the poem. It does not call his attention to its felicities of diction and versification, or to the intimate relation of its substance and its form. It gives no full exposition of Dante's scheme of the moral and material universe, or of his religious doctrine, or of his object in the writing of his poem, or of his conception of his own mission. It comes short of an ideal comment in many ways; but as a literal, explanatory comment it will be most useful to every beginner of the study of the poet; and the young student may supplement it with the delightful commentary with which Longfellow furnished his translation. Still, the two combined do not supply all that is wanted. There is no perfect comment even in Italian.

Asia and Europe: Studies presenting the conclusions formed by the author in a long life devoted to the subject of the relations between Asia and Europe. By Meredith Townsend. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1901. Pp. xii, 388.

This is a book of the most unhappy editing. The matter which it contains is indicated in the title with tolerable, but not perfect exactitude. Some of the studies could be brought under that rubric only by an exceeding wideness of interpretation. They all deal with Asia, it is true; and when we think of Asia, we cannot but relate it to Europe. But the fact is, that we have here simply a collection of the fugitive papers contributed through many years to the *Contemporary Review*, the old *National Review*, and the *Spectator* by an Indianist with a taste for anthropology and historical speculation. They range from a life of Muhammad to a few paragraphs on the minds of savages, and are always brightly and clearly written, readable to an eminent degree, and with no half-heartedness in the dashing off of theories of the past and hypotheses for the future. But the pity is that Mr. Townsend has not given more attention to the attiring for regular life of these wandering children of his brain. Only in one case, where we are told that the paper was published in 1874, are we given definite information as to the conditions under which he wrote or printed. In some other cases we can make large conjectures from references and tone, but generally we are left absolutely in the dark. How unfortunate this is for the estimating of such essays need hardly be said.

Mr. Townsend has made careful study of the Hindu mind, and, undoubtedly, in his years of experience, has reached far down into its mysteries. Its mental seclusion, which made Burton speak of the East Indian as the most unsympathetic of all races to the European, is admirably described and even explained. The Asiatic notion of justice, and acceptance of the whims, however bloody, of an absolute ruler as legally right and proper; the influence of religion upon moral conceptions, making it perfectly fitting for one caste to do a thing that is a sin in another; the ability in the Hindu mind to assent intellectually to the truth of different religious systems, and yet not to embrace any of them; to believe, also, at the same time, the most flatly opposed things; patriotism as it exists in the Hindu and pity as it does not exist; the sense in which India is civilized, and the sense in which it is barbaric; what makes life worth living, for the Oriental—the excitement of unlimited possibility in life beside life that is always afternoon—on all these things flashes of absolute insight are cast. In dealing with other races, we have rather anthropology slinging theories than experience recording facts. Thus, Mr. Townsend's estimate of the negro is probably too low, and that of the Arab too high. There are only two ways of learning to know the Arab race. One is to night and day with them in the desert, not as a tourist, but as a solitary wanderer. The other is to work steadily through Doughty's great book—weighty in every sense—of travels in Arabia Deserta. Mr. Townsend seems to have followed neither. And to no one man, it may be safely said, is it given to know both the Hindu and the Arab. Burton himself could not pick the lock of the East Indian mind. With the Chinese and the Japanese, Mr. Townsend has evidently even less acquaintance; especially he does not seem to have realized how completely Japan has assimilated Europe and ceased to be Oriental.

The thesis which Mr. Townsend seeks to support by the republishing of the papers in this volume is simple and direct. East is East and West is West, and they can never fuse into one. There may be trade between Europe and Asia or struggle; the thought of Asia may be the religion of Europe; but the Oriental and the Occidental must always stand apart. Each disdains the other; neither understands the other; neither, and that is the point, can conquer and assimilate the other. England's rule of India—the greatest social experiment since the *Pax Romana*—is, for any permanent result, a failure. The races are farther apart than ever, and there is no sign that Western law, religion, or education is producing any effect on the Indian mind. The law courts may be rigorously just, but the Indian prefers a rougher and readier justice than they render—one more personal even if corrupt. Missionary work has been educational and not creative. No native church has been founded that can take care of itself and send out bands of itinerant preachers to reach their own kin; the education has been of the English type on the system founded by Macaulay, who, of all men, could least understand an Oriental—he did not understand even Plato—and it has produced the Babu, who learns his textbook by heart, and not the learned Pandit. England will infallibly lose India, and India will be Indian and Oriental again. The same holds true of Russia and its conquests. Asia may within a century be completely parcelled out among the European Powers, but they will not, cannot hold it. As Alexander failed, as the Romans failed, as the Crusaders failed, so will this movement of conquest which is evidently coming.

Of America's part in this, Mr. Townsend says little, except in his preface. There he recognizes that what America wants is trade, and trade only. The attitude of America to Asia will not be one of conquest, but "one of rather contemptuous guardianship." The phrase is excellent, and is an example of many more throughout the book. The book as a whole could have been made equally excellent; that is the pity of it.

La Formation du Style par l'Assimilation des Auteurs. Par Antoine Albalat. Paris: Armand Colin. 1901.

Somewhat more than two years ago, we spoke with commendation of this author's 'L'Art d'Écrire,' which has meantime had a sale approaching ten thousand copies—proof that it went to the mark with the French public. The present work contains much that will be found familiar by readers of the former, and it is for other reasons not so captivating. Its movement is necessarily slower, as will appear when we say that more than a quarter of the treatise is devoted to Antithesis, an artifice of which a very few illustrations will satisfy, and many satiate. However, one cannot avoid considering minutely and at length this antithesis, which is, in M. Albalat's words, "the key, the explanation, the generative reason for half of French literature, or, if you please, of the French style employed by our best authors, from Montaigne to Victor Hugo." For the study of it he for once does not send his readers to the Greeks, but, beginning with Tacitus, passes to Montaigne and other French writers of the earlier date, for he prefers them to Hugo, Mignet, and Taine, antithetical as are these also in a marked degree—Hugo "antithesis incarnate." While Rousseau stands in the front of this series, Voltaire has no place in it, and is seldom cited anywhere in the book for his own sake. His style is pronounced destitute of rhetoric, and therefore unassimilable. Rousseau, the father of romantic literature, was classed by the Comte de Ségur with Corneille, Bossuet, and Tacitus as having the power to fecundate his soul, while Voltaire, though ravishing his intellect, left him unproductive; and Victor Cousin, again linking Rousseau with Tacitus, declared that no other French writer except Pascal had left such an impress on the language.

Homer, in the garb of Leconte de Lisle, plays a great rôle here as in 'L'Art d'Écrire,' especially in the chapters on description; and after him Chateaubriand, the study of whom will supersede that of all the writers of our time, "for he contains them all." Fénelon, the good writer, has no graphic powers, and his 'Télémaque' has done incalculable harm by being imposed as a text-book. It should be proscribed, says our author. For the formation of taste, read no book devoid of talent; and not many books but good ones, a test of which is their re-readability. M. Albalat shows with much

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detail the modes of assimilating authors by imitation, but bids no one attempt this who has not the inner promptings to write; and his final word is: "The art of writing is a gift first innately possessed, then developed by the study of those who have been and will remain the masters of French literature."

The exceptional value of this discussion lies in the choice illustrative extracts and in the constant reinforcement of the argument by citations from critical authorities, whose works are indicated by title for further study. Thus, Taine is adduced, in the chapter on description on the model of Homer's realism: "With this [French classic] style it is impossible to translate the Bible, Homer, Dante, or Shakspere. Read Hamlet's soliloquy in Voltaire, and see what becomes of it—abstract declamation . . . Look into Homer and then into Fénelon for the Isle of Calypso. . . ." M. Albalat adds from Voltaire's notes on Corneille a striking list of words and phrases, the use of which the annotator interdicts in the noble style—*humeur, genis, bourse, langue* being the last four out of twenty-eight. We may also call attention to the interesting incidental consideration of the place of the adjective in French, on pages 281-283.

Chapters on Greek Metric. By Thomas Dwight Goodell. (Yale University Bicentenary.) Charles Scribner's Sons. 1901.

Professor Goodell here attempts a reëxamination of certain crucial passages in the ancient writers on Metric, and endeavors to interpret them by comparison with one another, and also by the light of modern scientific study of the nature of the rhythmical impulse and its modes of operation. The sense of rhythm among the Greeks can hardly have differed greatly from ours, though we know that it differed in some details. The Greek poet composed without any theory of rhythm, and was guided by ear alone and by his artistic sense; the Greek school-boy undoubtedly required no more training to read aloud his Sophocles or Euripides correctly than the English boy to read his Milton. We may go farther and assume that Greek song in general did no violence to the ordinary pronunciation as regards time: for conductor and singer alike, the natural pronunciation of the words constituted the basis. Such being the case, then, in verse as well as in speech the spoken syllables must have been more or less flexible, the syllabic quantities must have remained somewhat elastic. This fact we might expect; it is recognized by Aristoxenos, our surest guide, and it is involved in his description of irrational feet. Nor was there any sharp distinction between the rhythm of song and that of spoken words. In maintaining this against Westphal, Professor Goodell follows Weil's exposition of Aristoxenos. There was, of course, in music increased precision in the observance of rhythm. But, just as in the modern languages, Greek poetry was *read* in a style which Aristides Quintilianus calls "intermediate" between that of conversation and that of singing.

From all this it follows that the hard-and-fast definition of the metrists (*metrici*) must be taken with reserve. That the long syllable is invariably twice the length of the short, Aristoxenos did not accept; since he treated metre as a branch of rhythm, he was aware in practice of the fact, proved by modern experiment, that "consonants and vowels alike are very elastic as regards the time of pronunciation." Toward the metrists, however, the attitude of Professor Goodell is conservative—they are to be treated with caution, but not to be neglected; they may often be corrected or interpreted by the aid of Aristoxenos. Professor Goodell does not accept the "cyclic" or three-timed dactyls. He sees no ground for this assumption in the ancient sources. He does not accept Blass's theory of the so-called dactylo-epitritic line with its heterogeneous groups of feet, founded on the Pindaric scholia; he does not agree with Rossbach that dactyls and anapæsts, when combined with trochees, can become three-timed; on the contrary, he believes that the trochees were adapted to the dactyls, and rhythmized or prolonged under their influence, rather than vice-versa. This does not prevent, however, our supposing an occasional shift to the three-timed rhythm when a complete colon of trochees is inserted. Such a shift might enhance the beauty of a strophe in Aeschylus or Pindar, and produce what may be called a bit of rhythmic harmony. Finally, Professor Goodell attempts to cut the Gordian knot of certain logaœdic metres, apropos of which he does not blush to quote sympathetically T. Reinach's "le glyconien que M. Masqueray ni moi ne savons scander."

His solution we have no space to condense; but it may be said, in general, that these chapters are a valuable contribution to the study of Metric, based on sound principles and sound interpretation. The author's discussions offer incidentally some excellent and acute observations on English verse and rhythm, too good to be wasted in the dry desert of a technical disquisition. They should be incorporated in a separate treatise for the edification of English readers.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, Mary M. Sonnets and Songs. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Aiken, Dr., Barbauld, Mrs., Marcet, Mrs., and Taylor, Jane. Eyes and No Eyes, and Other Stories. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Alger, Horatio, jr. Nelson the Newsboy. The Mershon Co. $1.25.
Alger, R. A. The Spanish-American War. Harpers. $2.50.
Allen, Grant. Florence. 2 vols. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $3.
An Episode on a Desert Island. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.25.
Arnold, Sarah L. The Arnold Primer. Silver, Burdett & Co.
Bagehot, Walter. Shakespeare the Man. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Bancroft, Alberta. Royal Rogues. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.35.
Barber, E. A. The Pottery and Porcelain of the United States. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $3.50.
Barr, Robert. The Victors. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Benham, W. B. The Platyhelmia, Mesozoa, and Nemertini. (Part IV. of Treatise on Zoölogy, edited by E. R. Lankester.) London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. 15s.
Benson, Margaret. The Soul of a Cat, and Other Stories. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Brady, C. T. Colonial Fights and Fighters. McClure, Phillips & Co. $1.20.
Brady, C. T. The Quiberon Touch. D. Appleton & Co.
Brooks, Amy. Randy's Winter. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.
Burgess, Gelett. A Gage of Youth. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. $1.
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